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ABSTRACT

Ten separate 1890 Land-Grant Universities and Tuskegee Institute cooperatively conducted a 10-state southern regional research project, "The Isolation of Factors Related to Patterns and Levels of Living in the Rural South," which elicited household and demographic data on 2,580 rural families. The 10 contiguous southeastern states which composed the research sites are Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. Data were collected in late 1981 through interviews with heads of households and examined six major areas: demographic characteristics; occupation characteristics; community and life satisfaction; agency utilization and client satisfaction; attitudes, values, and beliefs; and consumer behavior and income. The median age for respondents was 45 years or over; more white than black heads of households were surveyed in most states; and fewer than 50% of the heads of household had completed high school, except in Virginia (55%). This basebook provides a history of the project and a description of how the project was conducted. Descriptive tables report frequency distributions within each of the 10-state samples. Numerous subsections within each of the six major areas provide narrative, tables, and information about the survey instrument, where applicable. A bibliography and a discussion of the sampling procedure conclude the basebook. (BRR)

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1890 LAND GRANT REGIONAL RESEARCH PUBLICATION NO. 1

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ISOLATION OF FACTORS RELATED TO LEVELS AND PATTERNS OF LIVING IN LOW-INCOME AREAS OF THE RURAL SOUTH

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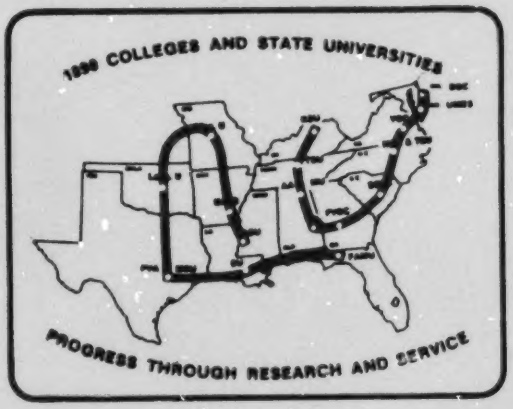
A Basebook

1890 Land Grant Institutions in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia and the U.S. Department of Agriculture Cooperating



August 1983

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ISOLATION OF FACTORS RELATED TO LEVELS AND PATTERNS OF LIVING IN SELECTED AREAS OF THE RURAL SOUTH

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FOREWORD

This Basebook reflects the concerted efforts of 11 scientists from 10 states in a compilation of household and demographic data on 2,580 rural families in the South. It was a horrendous task for these scientists of different disciplines and backgrounds to develop a unified model and procedure to conduct research in different geographical areas.

It was indeed a rare opportunity for me to have been a part of the development and conduction of this project from my initial involvement as a principal investigator to my current involvement as administrative advisor.

The scientists should be commended for the agony and hard work shared by all in overcoming the multiplicity of problems inherent in group or regional research. However, the outcome of this publication represents reward for their perseverance, acumen and dedication to a commitment.

It is hoped that this Basebook will serve its readers as a source of enlightenment concerning poverty in the rural South and the need and inspiration to do further research on the subject.

Sidney H. Evans
Administrative Advisor

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Social scientists from eleven institutions, all participants in the first 1890 Land-Grant Regional Research Project (RR-1), shared in the preparations of this Basebook. As indicated in section two, specific responsibilities were divided among the institutions. Technical committee work in developing this document was greatly facilitated by the use of the North Central Regional Research Publication No. 217: Patterns of Living Related to Income Poverty in Disadvantaged Families. With this document as a common reference model, we were able to concentrate more fully on timely reporting of the survey data. While final publication of the volume has been delayed nearly six months beyond the original schedule, the ten state-level surveys have been completed about 18 months and the machine readable data tapes have been available about 12 months. During this period several computer runs and reruns were expertly processed by Alton Thompson and associates of North Carolina A&T University. Interpretations of these runs were debated by section authors and the coordinating editor before final interpretations and drafts were agreed upon. Consistent with the committees approach to analysis, editing has been assisted greatly by Marguerite Howie and colleagues, South Carolina State College; Lina Godfrey, University of Arkansas, Pine Bluff; and Ruby Johnson, Alabama A&M University. The summary was drafted in collaboration with Jackie Whitehead and Melvin Walker of Fort Valley State College. Each of the sections has benefited from the dedicated checking of text and tables by Gere Bekele and the innovation and endurance of Pushpa Sapra on the IBM Displaywriter. Credit for formating the camera-ready copy also goes to these two research assistants at Alabama A&M University. Finally, responsibility for all remaining errors and omissions rests with the coordinating editor.

Gerald C. Wheelock
Coordinating Editor

AN OVERVIEW OF THE HISTORY OF RR-1

The Historically Black Land-Grant Colleges, though established under the Morrill Act of 1890, did not start receiving United States Department of Agriculture research and extension funds until 1967. These funds became available to the agricultural units at the respective colleges. Most of these colleges allocated these funds for the development of research projects in pure agricultural sciences; only a few colleges allocated small portions for people-oriented research in rural development. Under the influence of Drs. Edward Moe and Paul Jehlik, then Rural Sociologists with the Cooperative State Research Service, USDA, the late Dr. Cozy L. Ellison, former Dean of the School of Agriculture, Fort Valley State College, and subsequently Coordinator of 1890 Research Programs with CSRS, encouraged all 1890 schools to establish social science research projects. At the same time, Dr. Moe during his visit in February 1976, to Florida A&M University, and May 1976, to South Carolina State College emphasized the need for social science researchers at 1890 schools to establish channels of communication among themselves. He suggested to Dr. J.S. Dhillon at Florida A&M University that he talk with Dr. Melvin Walker at Fort Valley State College. Both Drs. Walker and Dhillon were studying rural poverty and there were elements of similarity in the two projects. Dr. Dhillon visited Fort Valley State College later that year. After 4 1/2 hours of meetings, they decided to explore the idea of a regional research project in the area of poverty with other 1890 researchers. Dr. John Moland of Southern University and Mrs. Marguerite Howie of South Carolina State College expressed interest in collaboration. The first meeting to discuss the regional research concept was held at Florida A&M University in July, 1977. In addition to the above referenced four social scientists, Mrs. Kathleen Hanna from South Carolina State College, Ms. E. Yvonne Beauford from Fort Valley State College, and CSRS representatives Dr. Edward Moe and Dr. McKinley Mayes participated in that meeting. The regional research concept was defined and its significance and relevance discussed. It was agreed that invitations be extended to other 1890 institutions for participation. The second meeting of the committee was held at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, in September, 1977, in conjunction with the Annual Rural Sociological Society Meetings. Dr. Gerald Wheelock from Alabama A&M University also participated in the deliberations. Dr. J.S. Dhillon was unanimously elected Chairman of the Committee. Subsequent meetings were held at South Carolina College in November 1977, Fort Valley State College in January 1978, and Dallas in March 1978. During this period Dr. Alfred Parks of Prairie View A&M University, Dr. Sheng-Yung Li of Virginia State College, and Dr. Levi Jones of Tennessee State University had also joined the project. A proposal entitled "Isolation of Factors Related to Levels and Patterns of Living in the Rural South" was developed as a result of these meetings.

The research proposal was presented to the Association of 1890 Research Directors at their spring meeting at Alabama A&M University on April 11, 1978, for approval by Dr. Dhillon, Dr. Walker, and Ms. Yvonne Beauford. After considerable discussion the proposal was approved. Dr. Howard Robinson of North Carolina A&T State University was asked to serve as the administrative advisor to the Regional Research Technical Committee.

In June 1978, at the resignation of Dr. Dhillon as Chairman of the Technical Committee, Dr. Walker was unanimously elected the new Chairman, a position which he still holds. At various times between 1978 and 1979, the following institutions also joined the regional project which was officially designated by CSRS as RR-1:

Alcorn State University	--	Drs. M.S. Dhaliwal & Woong Kyu Cho
University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff	--	Dr. Lina Godfrey
North Carolina A&T State University	--	Dr. Alton Thompson
Tuskegee Institute	--	Dr. Avery Webber
Kentucky State University	--	Dr. Dinker Patel

The present membership of RR-1 consists of ten 1890 institutions.

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SUMMARY

Across the nation, there exists inqualities among families not only in income distribution but in the ability to acquire the necessities of life. Although much poverty research has been conducted and many programs have been established as a result of such research, answers as to the causative factors of poverty are still elusive. However, we do know that, whether one becomes rich or remains poor, the values that an individual holds, the attitudes one possesses towards self and others, belief in oneself and the community in which one is involved, one's age, sex, race, and habits as well as one's family and community environment are contributing factors. This 10-state Southern regional research project entitled "The Isolation of Factors Related to Patterns and Levels of Living in the Rural South," examined the relationship of the above factors with one's success in escaping poverty.

Respondents selected were heads of households. In two-parent families, the husband was considered the head. To maximize response rates and representativeness, sample data were collected by personal interviews. To minimize field survey costs and insure comparability of data, a two-stage cluster sample design was standardized for all ten states. Stage one was a systematic random sample of three racially mixed (minimum of 400 Blacks), low-income (lower 35%, rural 70% or more) counties in each state. Stage two was a random cluster sample of eight houses per cluster. A minimum of thirty sample clusters per state (240 households) was allocated among the three counties in proportion to their size. Each state's research staff trained interviewers in their three counties. During the survey, field supervisors kept close contact to ensure that the proper procedures were being followed. Once the field work was completed, the interview schedules were coded and data were transferred to op scan sheets. From these, computer tapes were centrally processed at North Carolina A&T University and preliminary runs were made. After final data cleaning, tapes were distributed. The analysts used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

In general the types of family characteristics examined were: demographic characteristics; perceptions of community and life satisfaction; agency utilization and client satisfaction; attitudes, values and beliefs toward self and the community; and consumer behavior. These characteristics were analyzed by using state-by-state percentage distributions and cross tabulations with the poverty index. Relationships were tested with Chi square, Cramer's V and, Pearson's correlation coefficient.

In this report, descriptions for family situations are based on 10 separate state level percentage distributions of sample data for more than 150 attributes. For selected attributes, the high and low percentages (by state) are presented below.

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Male heads of household: 77% (Alabama) vs. 52% (Florida)

Household heads other than white: 64% (South Carolina) vs. 26% (Tennessee) and less than 2% (Kentucky)

Respondents 45 years of age and older: 66% (Mississippi) vs. 51% (Kentucky)

Married heads of households: 82% (Kentucky) vs. 52% (Florida)

Nonfarm residence: 91% (Florida) vs. 72% (Mississippi)

OCCUPATION CHARACTERISTICS

Respondent's father was a farmer: 48% (Georgia) vs. 34% (Arkansas)

Respondent was a farmer: 16% (Mississippi) vs. 7% (Arkansas)

Children of respondents who are farmers: 5.6% (Kentucky) vs. 0.8% (Alabama)

Respondents' fathers with less than 8 years of schooling: 64% (Alabama) vs. 42% (Kentucky)

Respondents with less than 12 years of schooling: 74% (Mississippi) vs. 46% (Virginia)

Children above 18 with less than 12 years of schooling: 44% (Kentucky) vs. 19% (Virginia)

Respondents' fathers with five or more children: 70% (North Carolina) vs. 55% (Arkansas and Virginia)

Respondents with five or more children: 60% (Alabama) vs. 39% (Virginia)

Respondents below the poverty line: 56% (Mississippi and Kentucky) vs. 26% (Virginia)

COMMUNITY AND LIFE SATISFACTION

Most people attend church - agree: 70% or more (South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, and Arkansas) vs. 59% or less (Georgia, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky)

Few people make the money - agree: 48% or more (Tennessee and Kentucky) vs. 30% or less (South Carolina and North Carolina)

Advise children to leave community - agree: 66% (Kentucky) vs. 32% or less (South Carolina and Alabama)

Crime is perceived as the main problem - agree: 30% or more (Kentucky and Tennessee) vs. 14% to 27% (all other states)

Civil Right Act has made life better - agree: 60% or more (South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Arkansas) vs. 42% or less (Tennessee and Kentucky)

Blacks and whites get along well here - agree: 76% or more (All except Kentucky) vs. 36% (Kentucky)

It may be noted that all of these community satisfaction percentage distributions vary directly with the proportion of the population that is black.

Respondents' evaluations of their well-being using a ladder of one to nine:

Best week - seven to nine: 68% (Tennessee) vs. 52% (Alabama and Kentucky)

Worst week - seven to nine: 14% (Mississippi) vs. 5% (Kentucky)

Most weeks - seven to nine: 39% (Tennessee) vs. 21% (Kentucky)

Future expectation - five years - seven to nine: 76% (Mississippi and Virginia) vs. 56% (Kentucky)

Father, when respondent was a child - seven to nine: 36% (Virginia and Tennessee) vs. 11% (Kentucky)

AGENCY UTILIZATION AND CLIENT SATISFACTION

Employment Security: Utilized, 2% (Kentucky) vs. 23% (Tennessee); Rated, very good or good, 27% (Mississippi) vs. 100% (Georgia)

Food Stamps: Utilized, 11% (Virginia) vs. 49% (Kentucky); Rated, good or very good, 62% (Arkansas) vs. 89% (Virginia)

Farmers Home Administration: Utilized, 5% (Alabama) vs. 16% (South Carolina); Rated very good or good, 78% (North Carolina) vs. 96% (Virginia)

Social Security: Utilized, 26% (North Carolina) vs. 43% (Mississippi) Rated, very good or good, 82% (Georgia) vs. 96% (North Carolina and Mississippi)

Commission on Aging: Utilized, 1% or less (North Carolina, Mississippi, Georgia, Virginia, Tennessee and Kentucky) vs. 4% (Arkansas); Rated, very good or good, 80% (Arkansas) vs. 100% (South Carolina, North Carolina, Mississippi, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, Kentucky)

Health Services: Utilized, 2% (Virginia and Kentucky) vs. 25% (Florida); Rated very good or good, 75% (Virginia) vs. 97% (Mississippi and Georgia)

Mental Health: Utilized, less than 1% (Virginia and Kentucky) vs. 4% (South Carolina, Mississippi, and Arkansas); Rated, very good or good, 50% (North Carolina) vs. 100% (Georgia, Florida, Virginia, Tennessee). Kentucky not utilized.

Veterans Administration: Utilized, 7% (Arkansas) vs. 15% (Florida); Rated, very good or good, 65% (Kentucky) vs. 96% (South Carolina)

ATTITUDES, VALUES, AND BELIEFS

Attitudes towards self:

Positive self esteem: 63% (Arkansas) vs. 40 to 43% (Mississippi and Kentucky)

Fatalism tendencies: 11% (South Carolina) vs. 28% (Kentucky)

Future - time orientation: 49% (Tennessee) vs. 30% (Mississippi)

Attitudes towards work:

A duty: 89% (Kentucky) vs. 79% (North Carolina)

Burdensome: 34% (Georgia) vs. 16% (Tennessee)

Independence: 86% (South Carolina) vs. 65% (Alabama)

Limited job opportunities is a serious employment problem: 78% (Kentucky) vs. 36% (North Carolina)

Lack of training is a serious employment problem: 50% (Kentucky) vs. 23% (Arkansas)

Not knowing the right people is a serious employment problem: 46% (Tennessee) vs. 20% (North Carolina)

Lack of job information is a serious employment problem: 38% (Alabama) vs. 12% (Florida)

Lack of transportation is a serious employment problem: 34% (South Carolina) vs. 12% (Tennessee)

Race discrimination is a serious employment problem: 26% (South Carolina and Alabama) vs. 4% (Kentucky)

Age discrimination is a serious employment problem: 23% (Alabama) vs. 6% (Arkansas)

Sex discrimination is a serious employment problem: 21% (Alabama) vs. 3% (Kentucky)

CONSUMER BEHAVIOR AND INCOME

Grow vegetables: 80% and 81% (Virginia and Kentucky) vs. 66% (Mississippi and Arkansas)

Raise animals for meat: 47% (Kentucky) vs. 21% (Florida)

Raise goats and cows for milk: 25% and 12% (Kentucky and Alabama) vs. 7% or less (all other states)

Chickens for eggs: 40% (Kentucky) vs. 10% (Virginia)

Buying groceries without food stamps: 93% (Georgia and Virginia) vs. 51% (Kentucky)

Look for sales: 97% (Kentucky) vs. 84% (North Carolina)

Buy groceries locally: 97% (Kentucky) vs. 75% (North Carolina) and 56% (South Carolina)

Get fair prices: 94% (Kentucky) vs. 70% (North Carolina) and 54% (South Carolina)

Rent homes: 24% (Florida) vs. 9% (Virginia)

Residence values $25,000 or less: 61% (Kentucky) vs. 23% (Virginia) and 24% (South Carolina)

Homestead occupies less than one acre: 28% (Kentucky) vs. 49% (Florida)

Residence with five or less rooms: 68% (Kentucky) vs. 40% (Virginia) and 52% (North Carolina)

Income $8,000 or less: 66% (Mississippi) vs. 34% (Virginia)

ISOLATION OF FACTORS RELATED TO LEVELS AND PATTERNS OF LIVING IN LOW-INCOME AREAS OF THE RURAL SOUTH: A BASEBOOK

1. INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

For more than decades, considerable efforts and resources have been devoted to programs designed to improve the quality of life of families having long histories of impoverishment. While it is difficult to assess the impact of these programs on an individual's ability to advance beyond the poverty threshold, the use of income criteria reveals that some families have managed to break the cycle of poverty, while others with similar characteristics, resources, opportunities, and environments have not. This phenomenon raises the following questions: (1) what are the sociodemographic and economic characteristics of those families in poverty? (2) what are their feelings, beliefs, aspirations, and expectations with respect to their life conditions and possibilities for positive change? (3) what are the basic factors influencing one's ability to escape the vicious cycle of poverty? (4) how do those persons escaping poverty differ from those not escaping? (5) what programs can be developed to promote and increase the number of families escaping from poverty?

Considerable research in this area has tended to be unidirectional, focusing upon the seemingly negative aspects of the poverty families to the neglect of the positive aspects. A more fruitful approach to the study of poverty would be based on a holistic view, emphasizing the multidimensionality of poverty and impoverished families. Furthermore, in addition to focusing statistically on the family at one point in time, an investigation of this nature should focus attention on the longitudinal career of the family system. Study in this area should take into consideration changes in the family over time with emphasis on the dynamics of interaction in the family system as related to the larger social system.

Most poverty family research has been purely descriptive with little explicit reference to a theoretical problem. The most crucial voids with respect to poverty family research are in the sociodynamic familial processes which include interaction among family members and the dynamics of linkages between the family and other social systems in the larger American society. Studies of these processes should complement those of structural analyses by providing answers to questions, yet to be understood and researched by social scientists, concerning the pervasive nature and causes of rural poverty. The structural analysis of the characteristics and composition of the rural poor remains basic to such research and would serve as the foundation to understanding the sociodynamic processes which occur.

To study the sociodynamic processes of poverty in family life, one might follow the lead of Reuben Hill (1971) who advocated the integration of systems theory and the family developmental framework for the systematic, comprehensive study of the family. In order to relate the possible influences of the social environment on the internal operations or functions of the family and to describe how families cope with these influences, the family can be viewed as an open social system in an interdependent relationship with its environment which is composed of other interdependent open social systems (Gross, 1966; Thompson, 1967; and Buckley, 1967). As a social system, the family has goals, resources and mechanisms to achieve these goals, and criteria for assessing output. The family is also an economic unit that acquires, allocates, and integrates its resources. One of the fundamental problems of the family as an open social system is that of coping with uncertainties and influences coming from elements of its input/output environment, especially as they relate to the family as an economic unit.

General Objectives

Given the present state of social science research in rural poverty and the gaps that need

to be filled, a cooperative regional project with such magnitude as the one formulated here should provide a more complete profile of rural poverty in the south. This profile should serve as a base upon which researchers and decision-makers could draw information instrumental to effective and purposeful program planning. In order to achieve this, the general objectives of this regional research were as follows:

1. to reexamine the extent and level of poverty and income inequality in the rural South;

2. to study the social, behavioral, and economic characteristics of individuals and families in relation to generational and intergenerational poverty;

3. to identify those societal, local, and personal influences (including national, state, and local programs) which differentiate between those individuals who escape poverty and those who do not;

4. to generate policy recommendations and define strategies for the reduction of poverty; and

5. to refine, test, and develop methodologies, techniques, and strategies for the study of low-income populations.

2. PROCEDURES

This Basebook is a product of the regional research project entitled "Isolation of Factors Related to Levels and Patterns of Living in the Rural South," otherwise known as RR-1 which is the first regional project organized by 1890 Land-Grant Institutions. The original proposal is funded by 10 separate 1890 Land-Grant Universities and Tuskegee Institute.

Questionnaire development, sampling design, interviewer training, data collection, data coding and cleaning, database tape production, and, now, Basebook publication have been the result of intensive efforts to do credible regional research. Principal investigators for RR-1 include members of several disciplines, primarily sociologists and economists, from 1890 Land-Grant Institutions and Tuskegee Institute. USDA/CSRS scientists, principally Edward Moe, Ph.D; McKinley Mayes, Ph.D; and more recently, David Brown, Ph. D; provided extensive administrative advice and moral support. While no USDA regional research funds have been available to the project, coordination among 1890 Land-Grant scientists and their research directors has evolved into cooperative state funding of the project. Research directors, Howard Robinson, Ph.D; and Sidney Evans, Ph.D; of North Carolina A&T University, and Melvin Walker, Ph.D; of Fort Valley State College, have been particularly helpful to the project. They served as Administrative Advisors and Technical Committee Chairmen respectively, for five years. While scientists at all 1890 Land-Grant Institutions were invited to consider implementing the project, researchers at Florida A&M, Fort Valley State (Georgia) and South Carolina State initiated the development. Ten contiguous southeastern states composed the final research sites. They are Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

Sampling

The objectives of the study called for a representative sample at regional, state, and county levels. To insure comparability, the methods were standardized for all states. A two-stage sample design was used; one sample was drawn for each of 10 states. The first stage in each state was a systematic random sample of three racially mixed (minimum 400 black population), low-income (lower 35%), rural (70%) counties. The second stage was a random cluster sample with clusters allocated in proportion to size of each of the three counties. The principles of equal probability of selection method (EPSEM) and cluster sampling in proportion to size were used in both stages (Kish, 1965: 82-92). In the first stage, probability of a county's selection was in proportion to its population size within each state's sampling frame of rural low-income counties. Furthermore, to insure a range of counties with respect to racial composition, the counties listed in each state's sampling frame were ordered by percentage white. The three counties were sampled systematically with a random start located between zero and one-third of the total

population of all counties on each state's list. The sample interval was equal to one-third of the total population. The sample frame of counties for each state and data detailing the selection of counties were included in Table A1 of Appendix A (Wheelock, et/ al., 1981).

Cluster Sampling, Size, and Household Listing

While cluster sampling lowers the cost of sampling and data collection per household, the household variance is larger, resulting from the irregular homogeneity of households in clusters (Kish, 1967:148-151). Random cluster sampling was selected as most practical and the following procedures were devised.

National geological survey maps (2° series) with a 15 minute by 15 minute grid superimposed were used to define the "open country" sampling frame of clusters for each county. Numbered intersections on this grid constituted the total sample frame of cluster starting points. An appropriate sample of numbers drawn from a list of random numbers was matched to starting points on the sample frame. Since the cluster area sampling technique assumed an equal distribution of the population, counties with towns of 1,000 or more population were given special treatment. The "town" strata and the "open-country" strata were allocated clusters in proportion to their population share. The town strata were separately defined with the use of town maps from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Each street intersection was numbered to constitute the sampling frame and numbers representing the sample clusters were drawn from a list of random numbers.

From this point, all maps were centrally processed at Alabama A&M University using a systematic serpentine entry into sample clusters. The serpentine procedure insured a standardized method of defining entry into each sample cluster. The entry procedure was to rotate clockwise around the sample cluster starting points. Randomness of entry and EPSEM were maintained by using the original random order of a cluster's selection.

For each county and town, 1980 census enumeration maps were secured from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Starting points and openended cluster outlines were transferred to each map. Appendix A provides a more detailed description of the procedure.

Even with cluster sampling, considerable interviewer training in reading maps and locating households was done. For economy in the data collection stage, cluster size was fixed at eight households. For simplicity in implementation, the first eight households within the defined, but open-ended boundaries of each cluster were designated as sample households. A minimum of 30 clusters and 240 households were sampled per state. To further minimize the discretion required by several interviewers per state (approximately 50 interviewers regionwide), 10 centrally trained sampling teams (one for each state) located the clusters, listed the households, and, in most cases, photographed the sample homes. Interviewers were then supplied with verifiable descriptions and photographs of the homes in which they were to conduct interviews. The only discretion left to the interviewer was to locate substitute households in the event of refusal or evacuation by the sample households. The sample rules prescribed that any substitutions would be the next household adjacent to the open-end of the original cluster.

Representativeness of Sample Counties (Table 2.1)

A total of 162 low-income rural counties was defined for the 10 states. The rural criterion (at least 70% rural) is fixed for all states, but the economic criterion is relative to the distribution of median incomes for rural counties in each state. Only 35% of the rural counties in each state were included, those with the lowest per capita income.

Before sampling counties, each state's list was stratified into counties with all white populations (less than 400 blacks in 1960 or 1970) and mixed white and black populations. Regionwide, 97 counties had mixed populations, so the criteria were relaxed to include Kentucky counties with any black population. Technically, the Kentucky counties sampled were defined as having all white populations and the remaining state samples included only counties with mixed populations. In the remaining states, the nine sample frames included 96 counties - 27 sample counties and 69 nonsample counties.

These two sets of counties were assumed to be derived from a population of counties having a common variance. In Table 2.1, population means for the two groups of counties are presented for (1) percent black population (1970),

(2) per capita income (1974), and (3) percent families by race below the poverty level (1970). The 27 sample counties had an average of 44.7% black population in 1970 compared with 48.2% for the balance of the sampling frame. Mean per capita income of the two groups differed by only $75, $2555 vs. $2480. The means for percent white and black families below poverty were also nearly identical, 18.5% vs. 19.3% for white families and 58.6% vs. 59.5% for black families in the sample and nonsample counties, respectively.

Table 2.1. Sampling Frame of Rural Counties (70% +) With Low Median Income (Lower 35% of Rural Counties) for 10 Southern States Cross-Classified by Racial Composition of County and Economic Status.

County Sampling Frame by State		% Black Population 1970	Per Capita Income 1974	Families Below Poverty % White 1970	Families Below Poverty % Non-White 1970
*1 AL	3	48.0	2379	17.5	61.8
2	8	57.8	2317	17.6	65.0
3	0				
1 AR	3	31.7	2523	22.4	59.0
2	0				
3	7				
1 FL	3	31.0	2824	22.0	64.7
2	3	23.6	2608	16.6	62.9
1 GA	3	49.3	2495	16.0	59.7
2	22	49.9	2350	19.9	58.7
3	1				
1 KY	3	2.5	2209	45.2	50.5
2	1	6.4	2451	37.2	85.6
3	22				
1 MS	3	53.0	2133	20.7	73.0
2	12	57.9	2183	22.6	72.0
3	0				
1 NC	3	53.6	2681	14.9	50.3
2	7	41.8	2706	19.7	52.0
3	8				
1 SC	3	59.0	2485	13.3	59.0
2	3	60.7	2345	15.3	58.7
3	0				
1 TN	3	32.7	2436	25.3	52.0
2	1	5.5	2255	33.5	18.2
3	15				
1 VA	3	44.4	3028	14.8	47.6
2	13	41.1	3001	16.7	52.9
3	7				
1 TOT	30	40.5	2520	21.2	57.8
2	70	48.4	2480	19.6	59.9
3	62				
1 TOT	27**	44.7	2555	18.5	58.6
2 NKY	69**	48.2	2480	19.3	59.5

* 1 = Sample
2 = Other counties with 400 or more black population
3 = Other counties with all white population
**The hypotheses of equal means for counties in the two nine-state samples (Kentucky excluded) are not rejected at the .05 level.

Using the t-test to compare means of independent samples from a population of counties with a common variance, the two-tailed probability that the means for these variables differ, as they did, was less than .05. Therefore, the hypothesis of equal means for the two samples ($H_o: M_1=M_2$) is not rejected. Similarly, although the data are not shown, the hypotheses of no differences in means for the percent employed in agriculture (1970), the percent over age 65, and the percent under age 18 are not rejected. For the two samples, only the means for total population and percent employed in another county in 1970 were significantly different at the .05 level. The 27 sample counties had a mean population of 17,200 compared with 12,400. The larger sample counties had an average of 22.9% out-of-county commuters compared to 29.6%. On the average, sample counties had larger populations and a smaller percentage of commuters. These differences are direct results of the sampling method, i.e., a county's chance of being sampled is in direct proportion to its population size. Except for the necessity to commute, this size difference does not appear to influence economic opportunities available to residents in the two sets of counties. At least with respect to economic dimensions, it appears that we can conclude that the selected counties are representative of low-income, racially mixed, rural counties of the region.

The 62 all-white, rural low-income counties in the 10 states were not significantly different at the .05 level from the 96 sample-frame counties with respect to the 1970 percent engaged in agriculture or per capita income (1974). The white counties had a significantly larger percentage of white families below poverty (35% vs. 18%). However, when blacks and whites were taken together in the mixed racial counties, the percentages were about equal. The all-white counties had significantly more residents over age 64 and fewer under age 18. While the all-white counties had a smaller mean population (11,067) than either of the racially mixed samples, they had only 24% out-of-county commuters in their labor force. In sum, the white counties appeared to have had an older, more settled labor force than the predominantly black counties, but with comparable mean incomes. No attempt was made to generalize from the racially mixed county sample to the all-white counties.

Representativeness of 10-State Sample (Tables 2.2 & 2.3)

Technically, the samples from which data were collected in this survey were two-stage random cluster samples at the state level. This section shows an attempt to evaluate the representativeness of these samples relative to Census of Population counts for the same counties in each state.

This evaluation is based on the percentage of the population which was black. The percentage of completed interview schedules by the race of respondents was tallied as the data were collected in each state during the second half of 1981. County population counts by race for the 1980 Census of Population were also available. Standard errors were estimated for the sample data. For example, random samples with a minimum of 240 households (one state) and an expectation that 45% of the sample would be black would have a standard error of 3.2%. Excluding Kentucky, standard errors ranged from 2.9% for Florida to 3.22% for Mississippi. According to sampling theory, 67% of a set of random samples could be expected to fall within one standard error of the population mean, 95% within two standard errors, and 99% within three standard errors. However, the random cluster sample techniques employed yielded larger errors and variances than were expected with simple random sampling of households. At the time of this analysis, the data (within cluster and between cluster variances) required to estimate the standard error expected of cluster sampling were not available.

In Table 2.2, it may be observed that the sample estimates for only two states (20% of samples) fall within ± one standard error of their population means. They are Alabama and Tennessee. Estimates for two more states (40% of samples), North Carolina and South Carolina, fall within ± two standard errors. Finally, all 10 states have errors within 3.5 standard errors of the expected proportion. The Spearman's rho (rank-order) correlation between the percent black for the 1980 Census and percent black for the survey sample was .87. In short, the samples' fit with their population parameters appeared to be very close in spite of the greater variances expected of random cluster sample techniques.

Furthermore, when all 10 samples were combined, 37.3% of the 2,554 respondents, were black. This compared with 39.1% of the total population (553,850 in 1980) for these 30 counties. The 1.8% difference was within two standard errors (±1.9%) of the total population proportion.

Table 2.2. RR-1 Survey vs. 1980 Census Count of Percent Black by State.

	% Black - 1980		Rank			
	Census	Survey*	Census	Survey	d	d^2
KENTUCKY	2	0^3	1	1	0	0
FLORIDA	27	36^3	2	4	-2	4
TENNESSEE	27	26^1	3	2	1	1
ARKANSAS	29	39^{3*}	4	6	-2	4
VIRGINIA	42	34^3	5	3	2	4
ALABAMA	45	44^1	6	8	2	4
GEORGIA	48	38^{3*}	7	5	2	4
MISSISSIPPI	50	39^{3*}	8	7	1	1
NORTH CAROLINA	54	48^2	9	9	0	0
SOUTH CAROLINA	60	65^2	10	10	0	0
Total	39.1	37.2^2				22

Spearman's rho rank-order correlation
$r_s(n = 10) = .87$
$r_s(n = 9) = .82$ (excludes Kentucky)
*number of standard errors for which the survey % black differs from the Census (1980)

At the county level (Table 2.3), it was be observed that 11 of 30 counties had sample estimates within one standard error of their population parameter for percent black. Another nine for a total of 67% were within two standard errors and five more for a total of 83% were within three standard errors. As expected, the standard errors were typically larger than would be predicted for a simple random sample. Similar to the state samples, the rank-order correlations for the sample proportions and the census percent black were .88 for all 30 counties and about .82 for the 27 counties excluding Kentucky.

There is a possibility that prior knowledge of percent black for 1970 influenced field selection of cluster starting points based on map reading in the field or household substitution procedures. If this were the case, it would be expected that the samples would yield percent black estimates more in line with the 1970 than the 1980 census counts. While the differences

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are very slight this does happen. Excluding Kentucky, eight of the county estimates were closer to the 1980 population parameter while 12 were closer to the 1970 population parameter. Seven counties showed equal differences between 1970 and 1980. While it would be more satisfying to find this comparison reversed, the differences were very subtle and were unlikely to affect analysis. The product-moment correlation for this sample and 1970 census data were .883, and for 1980 census data it was .879 (Table 2.3). This hypothesis may be further tested by age variables or family size variables taken from both the survey and the census for which prior knowledge was not a factor.

Table 2.3. RR-1 Survey vs. 1980 U.S. Census Counts of Percentage Black by County

Sample County	% Black - 1970 Census	% Black - 1980 Census	% Black - 1980 Survey	Rank % Black Census	Rank % Black Survey
McCeary, KY	0	1	0[1]	1	3
Clay, KY	0	2	0[2]	2	1
Cocke, TN	3	2	2[1]	3	4
Monroe, KY	0	3	0[3]	4	2
Cleveland, AR	20	15	26[1]	5	10
Washington, FL	20	20	31[1]	6	7
Jackson, FL	29	26	37[3]	7	15
Washington, AL	30	28	18[2]	8	6
Calhoun, AR	32	28	30[1]	9	12
Lauderdale, TN	34	31	40[2]	10	16
Johnson, GA	32	32	31[1]	11	13
Louisa, VA	39	33	21[3]	12	9
Leake, MS	36	35	3[5]	13	5
Mecklenberg, VA	42	40	29[3]	14	11
Lafayette, AR	43	41	33[3]	15	21
Monroe, AL	46	43	43[1]	16	18
Madison, FL	46	43	47[1]	17	19
Hoke, NC	44	44	22[5]	18	9
Fayette, TN	61	51	41[2]	19	17
Green, GA	52	53	37[4]	20	14
Quitman, MS	57	56	59[1]	21	25
Brunswick, VA	58	57	54[1]	22	22
Clarendon, SC	62	57	73[4]	23	27
Fairfield, SC	59	58	44[2]	24	26
Berti, NC	57	59	56[1]	25	23
Warren, NC	60	59	65[2]	26	29
Williamsburg, SC	61	62	57[2]	27	24
Stewart, GA	66	66	48[1]	28	20
Noxubee, MS	66	65	64[1]	29	28
Wilcox, AL	69	69	76[2]	30	30

Product movement correlations (r) using percentages (above the diagonal) and Spearman's rho rank-order correlations (r_s).

DATA SOURCE	SURVEY	CENSUS '80	CENSUS '70
SURVEY	1.00	.87	.89
CENSUS '80	.882 (.823)	1.00	.98
CENSUS '70	.885 (.824)	-	1.00
Sample Size	n=30 (n=27)		

*Number of standard errors for which the survey % black differs from the Census (1980) percent.

Until other population parameters can be compared with sample estimates it is tentatively concluded that the samples were generally representative at the local, state, and regional levels. While some individual samples deviate considerably from their population parameters, the high correlations between the two measures suggest that correlation analysis will not be greatly distorted by a few deviant samples.

Training Plan

An initial "training of trainers" concept was recommended and used to relax the logistical and financial constraints inherent in the attempt to standardize training for 10 state level interviewer teams. For that purpose, a "training of trainers" workshop was held in Atlanta during June of 1981. The trainers, upon completion of the program, were responsible for training all interviewers in their respective states. Researchers knowledgeable of the project and with particular skills and interest in the training area were selected as instructors for the workshop. This core group of instructors designed the training manual and curriculum and assumed responsibility for implementing the workshop.

Selection of Trainers

Each of the ten participating states sent at least one representative from each college or university. The following criteria were used in selection of the trainee: 1) familiarity with the regional instrument, 2) overall grasp of objectives, 3) previous interviewer experience, 4) prior experience in either teaching or conducting workshops, 5) a general understanding of sampling principles, 6) good interpersonal and communication skills, and 7) ability to run the training program in their respective states.

Training Workshop

The "training of trainers" workshop was limited to thirty people. This was critical to the proposed approach of practicum work. A two-day workshop was conducted. A specially developed training manual provided structure and curriculum for the workshop. Role playing exercises for both the workshop and the field training were included. Also, the manual served as an interviewer's guide to the interview schedule.

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Ample opportunity was provided for group discussion of assignments.

State Level Training of Interviewers

Upon completion of the "training of trainers" session, the regional project had a cadre of trainers equipped to train interviewers in their respective states. Each trainer was thoroughly familiar with the content and usage of the training manual and was judged capable of organizing and providing interviewer training.

To support the interviewer training process and to handle problems that arose in the field, a 10 state telephone network was established. This mechanism was needed to fix problems identified in local training and fieldwork and to disseminate the solution to all states.

Data Coding and Analysis

Data from the precoded questionnaires were edited and transferred to optical scan sheets by each state research team. Each state's sheets were sent to North Carolina A&T University where the sheets were checked, and data cards were punched. Subsequently, state by state disk and tape files were created and delivered to each state in July, 1982. The 10-state disk files were used at North Carolina A&T University to do the state level frequencies and cross-tabulation analysis for this Basebook. Each state is initiating analysis with subsets of the data files.

The data sections (3-4) that follow are presented in the order found in the questionnaire (responsible state):

3. Demographic Characteristics (Arkansas)
4. Community and Life Satisfaction (Tennessee)
5. Agency Utilization and Client Satisfaction (South Carolina)
6. Values Attitudes and Beliefs (Mississippi)
7. Consumer Behavior (Tuskegee, Georgia, and Virginia)

North Carolina and Alabama were responsible for technical support in interpreting the data and in compiling and editing the Basebook.

In each section, the variables presented were related to the poverty index. In the case of categorical or nominal level data, Cramer's V measure of association and chi square test of significance (Downie and Heath, 1974: 203) were used to evaluate the relationship. Cramer's V may ranged from 0.0 (indicating no relationship) to 1.0 (indicating perfect congruence) and thus indicated the degree of congruence among categories of the two variables. Since congruent categories may vary from state to state, the crosstabulations with significant relationships were examined and compared to determine the consistency of the relationships among and between states. These observations are made at the end of each section. For convenience, in certain instances, standard product moment correlation coefficients have also been used.

For most items in the interview schedule, state-by-state percentage frequency distributions were included in sections 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. The response categories are usually mutually exclusive and exhaustive; therefore the percentages usually total 100%. Exceptions are noted in the text. Since nonresponses and irrelevant subsamples were excluded from some tables, the base number (N) used for percentages varies.

3. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Levels and patterns of living of a population may be conditioned or, indeed, defined by the household characteristics, income, and other social and educational aspects of the environment. For this study, a "household" was defined as a social unit, comprised of those living together in the same dwelling place. The head of household was restricted to the householder responsible for income maintenance for those living within the household. The attributes of the heads of households and their families in the 10 southern states sampled in this regional study provided a background for other patterns of living dimensions.

Descriptive tables were prepared to report frequency distribution within each of the 10-state samples. The states were ordered by percent white households, in hope of seeing the potential significance of race in this study. Furthermore, the order of the states also appeared to be meaningful in a geographic context. South Carolina and North Carolina are together. Alabama, Mississippi, and Arkansas are adjacent states and the three lowest in the nation in terms of per capita income. Florida, Georgia, and Virginia are more urban and better off than any other state in the South. Finally, Kentucky and Tennessee have more than a border

in common. Thus ordered, each table should reveal only ecological relationships that exist between the race percentages in the samples and the state by state frequency distributions for each variable. Also, a table at the end of each section summarizes the relationship between the variables presented and the poverty index.

Sex of Heads of Households (Table 3.1)

The extent to which males or females were heads of households differed greatly in Alabama (77%; 23%), Arkansas (73%; 27%), Virginia (71%; 29%), and Tennessee (71%; 29%). Florida had approximately equal percentages (52%; 48%) of males and females, respectively, as heads of households, and more females (48%) than any other state. Male heads of households ranged from 52% for Florida to 77% for Alabama.

Table 3.1 Sex of Heads of Households

States	Male	Female	Total	
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	55.4	44.6	100.0	312
North Carolina	57.8	42.2	100.0	249
Alabama	76.6	23.4	100.0	252
Mississippi	65.7	34.3	100.0	248
Arkansas	72.9	27.1	100.0	255
Georgia	71.0	29.0	100.0	248
Florida	52.1	47.9	100.0	240
Virginia	71.4	28.6	100.0	259
Tennessee	71.0	28.7	100.0	247
Kentucky	58.6	41.4	100.0	263

Table 3.2. Race of Head of Household

States	Black	White	Other	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	64.4	35.6	0.0	100.0	312
North Carolina	47.0	47.4	5.6	100.0	249
Alabama	45.6	52.8	1.6	100.0	252
Mississippi	38.7	60.1	1.2	100.0	248
Arkansas	38.8	61.2	0.0	100.0	255
Georgia	37.5	62.5	0.0	100.0	248
Florida	37.1	62.9	0.0	100.0	240
Virginia	33.6	66.4	0.0	100.0	259
Tennessee	25.5	74.5	0.0	100.0	247
Kentucky	1.5	98.5	0.0	100.0	263

Race of Heads of Households (Table 3.2)

The percentage distribution of race showed a range of less than 2% blacks for Kentucky to 64% blacks for South Carolina. North Carolina had nearly equal percentages of both black and white heads of households. There were more white than black heads of households in all other states. Only North Carolina, Alabama, and Mississippi had "other" groupings of race.

Age of Heads of Households (Table 3.3)

In all states, the median age for respondents was 45 years or over; the proportions 45 years old and over ranged from 51% in Kentucky to 66% in Mississippi. Only Arkansas reported more than 35% in the 65 years or older category. About 14% of Kentucky heads were 24 years or younger. No other state sample reported more than 9% in this age group.

Table 3.3. Age of Heads of Households

States	17-24	25-44	45-64	65+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	3.8	33.7	36.5	26.0	100.0	312
North Carolina	5.6	40.6	32.5	21.3	100.0	249
Alabama	2.4	36.1	30.2	31.3	100.0	252
Mississippi	6.5	27.8	35.5	30.2	100.0	248
Arkansas	9.4	26.7	28.2	35.7	100.0	255
Georgia	4.8	31.5	32.3	31.5	100.0	248
Florida	5.8	34.6	29.2	30.4	100.0	240
Virginia	3.9	33.6	37.5	25.1	100.0	259
Tennessee	1.6	38.7	33.9	25.8	100.0	248
Kentucky	13.7	35.0	27.0	24.3	100.0	263

Table 3.4. Marital Status of Heads of Households

States	Widowed	Not Married	Married	Divorced	Separated	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	24.7	5.8	59.6	4.8	5.1	100	312
North Carolina	13.3	8.8	67.9	4.0	6.0	100	249
Alabama	16.7	6.0	68.3	5.2	4.0	100	252
Mississippi	23.4	7.7	61.3	4.8	2.8	100	248
Arkansas	19.2	5.1	67.8	5.1	2.7	100	255
Georgia	19.0	4.0	66.5	6.0	4.4	100	248
Florida	23.3	7.9	51.7	9.2	7.9	100	240
Virginia	20.5	5.0	70.3	1.9	2.3	100	259
Tennessee	15.0	4.8	70.4	6.9	2.8	100	247
Kentucky	11.0	1.5	82.1	3.0	2.3	100	263

Marital Status (Table 3.4)

Percentages reported represented the marital status of the heads of households. Percentages for married heads of households ranged from 52% for Florida to 82% for Kentucky. Widowed heads of households ranged from 11% for Kentucky to 25% for South Carolina. Small percentages of heads of households were never married, divorced, and separated.

Farm, or Nonfarm Residence (Table 3.5)

Heads of households were categorized as

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having farm or nonfarm residence. Farm category ranged from 10% for Florida to 28% for Mississippi. The majority of the heads of households was nonfarmer residents in all states.

Table 3.5. Farm or Nonfarm Residence

States	Farm	Nonfarm	Total	
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	24.8	75.2	100.0	310
North Carolina	24.9	75.1	100.0	237
Alabama	16.3	83.7	100.0	251
Mississippi	27.8	72.2	100.0	248
Arkansas	15.9	84.1	100.0	246
Georgia	14.3	85.7	100.0	238
Florida	9.5	90.5	100.0	231
Virginia	14.3	85.7	100.0	258
Tennessee	17.9	82.1	100.0	240
Kentucky	11.5	88.5	100.0	243

Table 3.6. Number of Children by Respondents' Fathers

States	1-4	5-9	10-14	15+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	30.4	49.6	18.7	1.3	100.0	299
North Carolina	29.5	48.6	18.8	2.9	100.0	239
Alabama	31.0	48.3	19.2	1.2	100.0	244
Mississippi	40.1	35.8	20.9	3.4	100.0	235
Arkansas	44.9	37.4	15.0	2.8	100.0	254
Georgia	37.3	47.2	14.3	1.3	100.0	239
Florida	38.8	40.6	19.0	1.6	100.0	237
Virginia	44.7	43.1	9.9	2.4	100.0	253
Tennessee	36.1	44.9	17.2	1.6	100.0	238
Kentucky	39.2	43.9	16.2	0.8	100.0	260

Number of Children by Father (Table 3.6)

Heads of households were asked to state the number of children their fathers had. Fathers with one to four children ranged from 30% for North Carolina to 45% for Arkansas and Virginia. Fathers with 10 or more children ranged from 12% for Virginia to 24% for Mississippi. Fathers with five to nine children ranged from 36% in Mississippi to 50% in South Carolina and was the modal category for all states except Mississippi, Arkansas, and Virginia.

Number of Children by Household (Table 3.7)

Heads of households were asked for the number of children born to them or spouse. Number of children ranged from one to 18. While 30% to 45% of the heads of households were raised in families with one to four children (Table 3.6), 40% (Alabama) to 63% (Virginia) of the children reported by households were raised in families with one to four children. While 12% to 24% of the state samples reported that their fathers parented 10 or more children (Table 3.6), while 6% (Tennessee) to 20% (Alabama) of the current households parented 10 or more children. It should be noted that current households may be counting children by two parents.

Table 3.7. Number of Children by Household

States	1-4	5-9	10+	Total Children	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	41.9	46.5	11.5	100.0	1018
North Carolina	47.1	38.0	14.8	100.0	760
Alabama	40.1	40.4	19.5	100.0	910
Mississippi	42.6	42.5	14.9	100.0	768
Arkansas	56.2	30.9	12.8	100.0	690
Georgia	55.6	37.0	7.2	100.0	660
Florida	44.9	38.7	16.4	100.0	802
Virginia	63.3	30.9	5.8	100.0	611
Tennessee	50.9	42.8	6.2	100.0	692
Kentucky	48.3	41.3	10.3	100.0	719

Table 3.8. Respondents' Parents: Educational Attainment of Father (Years Completed)

States	0-7	8-11	12+	13+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	50.0	29.1	20.9	9.0	100.0	134
North Carolina	62.1	24.9	13.0	6.9	100.0	132
Alabama	64.2	17.6	18.2	5.9	100.0	187
Mississippi	54.8	24.5	20.8	10.4	100.0	106
Arkansas	56.8	26.0	17.3	5.9	100.0	254
Georgia	59.8	27.4	12.8	8.5	100.0	164
Florida	48.4	26.4	25.1	12.2	100.0	155
Virginia	51.0	23.7	25.5	6.0	100.0	169
Tennessee	55.2	24.9	20.0	9.3	100.0	225
Kentucky	42.4	44.9	12.6	1.5	100.0	189

Educational Attainment of Father (Table 3.8)

Heads of households were asked to give the highest grade of school completed by their fathers. In all states except for Florida (48%) and Kentucky (42%), 50% or more of the fathers had seven grades or less of schooling. The proportions ranged up to 64% for Alabama. The proportions for high school education ranged from 13% for Kentucky to 26% for Virginia. Florida had 25%, and Alabama had 18%. Higher levels of education (13 years and beyond), ranged from 2% for Kentucky to 12% for Florida.

Educational Attainment of Head of Household (Table 3.9)

Heads of households were asked to give the highest grade of school they had completed. In

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all states except Virginia (55%), fewer than 50% of the heads of household completed high school. Mississippi (26%) and Kentucky (39%) had the lowest percentages of heads of households with a 12th grade education. Heads of households with education beyond high school ranged from about 21% for Florida, Virginia, and Tennessee to a low of 6% for Kentucky. Heads of household not completing eight years of education ranged from 18% in Florida to over 30% for Alabama.

Table 3.9. Respondents' Characteristics: Educational Attainment of Head of Household (Years Completed)

States	1-7	8-11	12+	13+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	24.1	34.2	41.0	12.3	100.0	307
North Carolina	24.1	33.2	42.6	14.0	100.0	241
Alabama	30.6	25.6	43.7	17.5	100.0	245
Mississippi	25.8	48.3	25.8	9.0	100.0	244
Arkansas	25.8	33.0	41.1	11.7	100.0	245
Georgia	22.4	35.7	41.8	16.9	100.0	241
Florida	17.9	33.0	49.2	21.4	100.0	234
Virginia	19.2	26.8	53.7	20.8	100.0	249
Tennessee	19.4	34.3	46.2	20.6	100.0	242
Kentucky	25.0	36.3	38.7	5.9	100.0	259

Table 3.10. Family Characteristics: Educational Attainment of Children Above 18 (Years Completed)

States	12+	15+	Total	
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	75.0	18.0	100.0	631
North Carolina	71.0	14.0	100.0	452
Alabama	76.0	14.0	100.0	536
Mississippi	67.0	9.0	100.0	475
Arkansas	65.0	12.0	100.0	511
Georgia	71.0	16.0	100.0	428
Florida	72.0	10.0	100.0	476
Virginia	81.0	22.0	100.0	384
Tennessee	71.0	18.0	100.0	434
Kentucky	56.0	7.0	100.0	425

Educational Attainment of Children 18 and Over (Table 3.10)

The range of children who had high school education was 81% for Virginia to 56% for Kentucky, and those with 15 years or more education ranged from 7% for Kentucky to 22% for Virginia. In contrast, no more than 54% of the heads of households or 26% of their fathers graduated from high school.

Occupational Types of Fathers (Table 3.11)

Each head of household was asked the occupation of his father. Farmer or farm manager was the modal occupation reported for their fathers in all the states. The proportions ranged from 34% for Arkansas to 48% for Georgia. Laborers -- nonfarm and farm -- were second and third in average frequency of occupations for fathers of heads of households. Craftsman or foreman and professional or technical workers were fourth and fifth in average frequency. Proportions of their fathers in remaining occupations ranged from 0.3% (clerical and service worker) for Florida and Alabama to 7% (operative) for South Carolina. Overall, a majority of fathers in all states were engaged in farming or labor, nonfarm.

Occupational Types of Heads of Households (Table 3.12)

Each head of household was asked his/her occupation. Proportions of heads of households in professional, technical, and kindred work ranged from 7% for Kentucky to 22% for Georgia. This was the modal category for four states although Mississippi showed a bimodal distribution between the professional and farmer manager categories. Labor, nonfarm ranged from 3% for Mississippi to 25% for Arkansas. This was the modal category for Alabama and Arkansas. Farmer or farm manager ranged from 7% for Arkansas to 17% for Mississippi. Operatives involved in manufacture ranged from 3% for Florida to 16% for Georgia and South Carolina. In spite of emphasis on industrialization in the Sunbelt during the 60s and 70s only South Carolina respondents reported operative as the modal occupational category for this low-income rural sample. Private household worker ranged from 3% for Mississippi to 22% for Kentucky.

In general, the frequencies of heads of households employed in the remaining occupational types were in declining order: service worker, craftsman or foreman, manager or administrator, farm laborer, clerical or sales transport equipment operator, or housewife. Very small proportions were "other".

Occupational Types of Adult Children Not at Home (Table 3.13)

Professional, technical, and kindred worker was the modal response given by heads of households for their adult children's occupation in seven states. Percentages ranged from 17% for

Table 3.11. Respondents' Parents: Occupational Type of Father

States	Prof. Tech. & Kind.	Man. Adm.	Sales & Clerk	Craftsman or Foreman	Operative Manf.	Trans-Equip. Oper.	Labr. NF	Farmer or Farm Mgr.	Farm Labr.	Serv. Wkr.	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	5.4	4.1	3.0	7.8	7.1	2.0	5.1	41.7	22.0	1.7	100	295
NC	4.5	4.9	3.7	5.3	4.5	1.6	7.8	45.7	18.1	3.7	100	243
AL	8.1	2.8	3.2	8.9	2.8	0.4	20.2	45.2	8.1	0.4	100	248
MS	8.7	2.2	0.9	2.2	0.9	0.9	3.0	45.2	31.3	4.8	100	230
AR	5.9	5.5	2.8	3.9	4.3	2.0	17.3	34.1	23.1	1.2	100	25[illegible]
GA	6.6	3.7	1.2	9.4	6.1	2.9	11.5	48.4	6.6	3.7	100	244
FL	12.3	4.3	0.4	14.5	0.9	1.3	22.1	40.4	0.9	3.0	100	235
VA	10.0	5.2	2.0	10.4	2.0	2.0	13.5	46.6	4.4	4.0	100	251
TN	11.6	5.4	1.2	7.5	3.3	1.2	13.3	38.6	13.3	4.6	100	241
KY	3.1	1.6	5.1	7.4	2.3	3.9	27.2	46.3	1.9	1.2	100	257

Table 3.12. Respondents' Characteristics: Occupational Type of Heads of Households

States	Prof. Tech. & Kind.	Man. Adm.	Sales & Clerk	Craftsman or Foreman	Operative Manf.	Trans-Equip. Oper.	Labr. NF	Farmer or Farm Mgr.	Farm Labr.	Serv. Wkr.	Hse. Wkr.	Priv. Hse. Wife	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	15.2	8.4	5.2	6.1	15.5	3.6	6.1	11.7	13.3	5.2	9.3	0.3	100	309
NC	13.3	4.6	3.8	4.6	13.3	1.7	7.1	14.6	6.3	12.5	15.0	3.3	100	240
AL	16.4	9.2	2.4	10.8	4.8	3.6	20.0	15.2	2.0	2.8	8.8	4.0	100	250
MS	16.5	2.5	5.5	4.6	8.0	2.5	3.4	16.5	12.7	13.9	3.0	11.0	100	237
AR	12.2	5.5	4.4	7.1	8.3	5.1	24.8	7.1	9.1	3.5	10.6	2.4	100	254
GA	22.1	8.2	3.6	8.2	15.6	4.5	13.1	13.5	1.6	5.7	3.3	0.4	100	244
FL	19.2	5.1	9.0	7.7	3.4	2.6	16.2	7.7	3.0	9.4	10.3	6.4	100	234
VA	18.8	8.2	12.1	15.2	7.0	2.3	7.0	12.1	0.8	10.9	5.5	0.0	100	256
TN	19.2	10.0	3.8	7.5	11.	2.9	10.8	12.5	3.8	11.3	3.8	3.3	100	240
KY	6.7	4.7	8.2	5.5	7.1	2.8	20.1	10.2	0.8	8.3	22.4	3.1	100	254

Table 3.13. Family Characteristics: Occupational Types of Children Not at Home*

States	Prof. Tech. & Kind.	Man. Adm.	Sales & Clerk	Craftsman or Foreman	Operative Manf.	Trans-Equip. Oper.	Labr. NF	Farmer or Farm Mgr.	Farm Labr.	Serv. Wkr.	Hse. Wkr.	Priv. Hse. Wife	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	19.3	6.9	14.0	5.8	9.6	4.4	15.7	1.1	0.8	5.2	1.1	[illegible]	100	363
NC	21.7	2.9	13.6	3.9	12.6	2.6	14.9	3.6	1.9	7.4	2.3	6.5	100	309
AL	15.8	6.0	10.6	11.9	9.1	3.4	20.2	0.8	0.3	3.1	0.8	15.3	100	386
MS	21.3	6.9	12.2	2.8	7.5	2.8	10.2	3.9	1.7	9.4	0.6	16.6	100	362
AR	17.3	2.8	9.6	4.4	3.1	1.5	34.3	1.3	0.8	4.1	12.9	6.4	100	388
GA	23.6	6.0	9.9	4.2	7.3	6.0	17.2	1.5	1.2	9.4	1.2	4.5	100	331
FL	16.8	6.6	15.4	7.6	2.2	3.5	8.5	1.9	0.3	6.3	0.9	12.8	100	316
VA	22.7	5.2	12.9	4.5	14.7	0.3	3.8	2.4	0.3	18.2	2.1	9.1	100	286
TN	21.5	4.9	15.0	5.9	11.5	2.1	12.5	3.1	0.3	9.0	3.8	5.9	100	288
KY	9.6	4.8	10.8	4.0	12.9	3.6	16.9	5.6	0.8	10.0	2.4	16.9	100	249

*Students, military and welfare percentages excluded from Table but included in total number.

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Florida to 24% in Georgia. In Alabama, Arkansas, and Kentucky, the modal category was nonfarm - labor with 20%, 34%, and 17%, respectively. An intergenerational trend towards these two occupational categories was evident in these 10-state samples. The number of samples reporting the professional category as modal increased by two, South and North Carolina, while Kentucky became a nonfarm, labor modal category. Kentucky reported an equal 17% as housewife. While the professional and nonfarm labor categories generally increased their share of the labor force, other skilled or semiskilled categories continued to increase their share at the expense of farmer, farm manager, farm labor, and household worker categories. As expected, "housewife" was listed more frequently for the adult children group than the earlier household head generation. If these proportions were redistributed among the other occupations the trends discussed would be even stronger.

Age of Adult Children Living at Home (Table 3.14)

Among children over 18 and living at home, a low of 62% in Florida to 82% in Arkansas were 24 years or younger. For age group 25 to 34, the range was 7% for Arkansas to 28% for Virginia. The smallest group was 45 years and over, with a maximum of 15% for Florida and 1% minimum for Virginia.

Table 3.14. Age of Adult Children Living at Home

States	18-24	25-34	35-44	45+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	64.7	22.0	5.9	7.3	100.0	119
North Carolina	68.2	24.8	4.8	2.4	100.0	85
Alabama	67.9	20.4	8.4	3.6	100.0	84
Mississippi	64.6	21.6	10.2	3.9	100.0	79
Arkansas	81.9	7.2	5.4	5.4	100.0	95
Georgia	74.3	17.6	3.2	4.8	100.0	62
Florida	61.8	15.3	6.8	15.3	100.0	58
Virginia	62.6	28.1	7.9	1.3	100.0	75
Tennessee	63.1	25.1	5.6	6.2	100.0	87
Kentucky	64.0	20.0	8.3	8.2	100.0	86

Age of Adult Children Not Living at Home (Table 3.15)

Proportions reported in Table 3.15 represent ages of children over 18 years and not living at home. Children between the ages of 18 and 24 ranged from 16% for Florida to 22% for Kentucky. The 25 to 34 age level was the modal category for all states, except for Arkansas. For all states the 45 and over age level ranged from 11% for Kentucky to 30% for Arkansas. While about 2/3 or more of all adult children at home were 18 to 24 years of age about 80% or more adult children in all states were 25 years or older (Table 3.14).

Table 3.15. Age of Adult Children Not at Home

States	18-24	25-34	35-44	45+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	19.8	36.1	24.4	19.7	100.0	512
North Carolina	19.6	42.3	24.1	14.2	100.0	367
Alabama	17.9	35.1	23.6	22.4	100.0	452
Mississippi	20.3	36.1	22.0	22.6	100.0	396
Arkansas	17.6	28.1	23.8	30.5	100.0	415
Georgia	18.5	31.4	30.1	20.0	100.0	366
Florida	16.0	34.6	24.9	24.5	100.0	418
Virginia	16.9	40.2	26.8	16.1	100.0	309
Tennessee	16.7	38.3	27.9	17.1	100.0	347
Kentucky	22.3	39.0	27.9	10.8	100.0	339

Table 3.16. Total Reported Income of All Children Over $1,000 (Rounded to Nearest $1,000)

States	1-9	10-19	20-29	30-49	50-90	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	42.1	35.5	10.5	7.9	3.9	100	76
North Carolina	68.1	25.5	6.4	0.0	0.0	100	47
Alabama	37.2	45.3	12.8	4.1	0.7	100	148
Mississippi	57.1	23.8	14.3	2.4	2.4	100	42
Arkansas	41.3	41.3	9.8	4.9	2.7	100	184
Georgia	42.1	36.8	10.5	6.2	4.4	100	114
Florida	43.2	37.5	8.0	3.4	3.1	100	88
Virginia	38.0	36.1	18.5	5.6	6.5	100	108
Tennessee	44.1	40.6	10.9	2.1	2.1	100	229
Kentucky	64.9	23.7	7.2	3.1	1.0	100	97

Income of Children Over $1,000 (Table 3.16)

Heads of households were asked to report incomes of their children. Only 42 Mississippi respondents reported while a high of 229 Tennessee families indicated estimates of their children's incomes. About 38% of Alabama and Virginia families ranging to a high of 68% in North Carolina, reported aggregate incomes for their adult children of less than $10,000. Only South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia sample households reported aggregate adult children incomes of more than $30,000.

Family Characteristics: Poverty Status (Table 3.17)

Using 1980 poverty guidelines based on family size and income, the percentages of

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states' samples below the poverty level ranged from 26% to 29% for Virginia, Georgia, and Tennessee to 56% for Mississippi and Kentucky. The five remaining states showed 45% to 47% below poverty.

Table 3.17. Family Poverty Status

States	Above Poverty	Below Poverty	Total	
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	54.2	45.8	100.0	312
North Carolina	54.5	45.5	100.0	235
Alabama	53.4	46.6	100.0	251
Mississippi	44.4	55.6	100.0	248
Arkansas	54.2	45.8	100.0	240
Georgia	72.0	28.0	100.0	239
Florida	53.0	47.0	100.0	234
Virginia	73.6	26.4	100.0	246
Tennessee	71.2	28.8	100.0	243
Kentucky	44.5	55.5	100.0	245

Demographic Measures and the Poverty Index (Table 3.18)

For each state's sample, poverty status (Table 3.17) was cross-tabulated with selected variables presented above. Cramer's V (or phi in the 2x2 case), a chi square based statistic, was employed to index the degree of association. Its magnitude ranged from .00 (no association) to 1.00. Cramer's V was used as test for significance using chi square which is appropriate for use with nominal level data presented here. (Downie and Heath, 1974)

In all states, households with male heads, high educational attainment, high occupational status, nonfarm residence, with few children and of white race were more likely to be above poverty households. Only the Kentucky sample relationship for white heads of household and the Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi sample relationship for nonfarm residence were not significant at the .05 level. Regarding age, in all states but North Carolina, where 45 to 64 year olds were poorest, households with heads 65 and over were most likely to be in poverty. In six states, above poverty level households were more prevalent among 25 to 44 year-old heads. However, in South Carolina, Georgia, Arkansas, and Mississippi, 45 to 64 year olds were more prosperous. This age of head-poverty relationship was significant in all states. The marital status poverty index was also significant for all states. Specifically, the percent married was relatively higher in all states for above poverty households. Except for Kentucky, Florida, Georgia, and Arkansas, the divorce rate was higher also among above poverty level households. Below poverty households were characterized by "widowed" or "separated" for "marital status" in all states.

Table 3.18. Summary of Chi Square Tests and Phi/Cramer's V Statistics to Identify Significant Relationships of Demographic Measures with Poverty Index

Demographic Measures	SC	NC	AL	MS	AK	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
Sex	.28*	.16*	.19*	.26*	.24*	.21*	.43*	.31*	.29*	.26*
Race	.42*	.41*	.32*	.22*	.36*	.31*	.47*	.24*	.23*	.01
Age Level	.25*	.26*	.27*	.26*	.38*	.22*	.28*	.35*	.32*	.19*
Marital Status	.32*	.29*	.21*	.24*	.32*	.25*	.53*	.33*	.32*	.24*
Farm or Nonfarm Residence	.34*	.16*	.17*	.13*	.09	.01	.05	.23*	.24*	.19*
Number of Children by Father	.30+	.41*	.32	.26	.34+	.31	.35*	.35*	.34+	.33*
Number of Children by Household	.36*	.40*	.38*	.35*	.34*	.28+	.46*	.36*	.46*	.30
Educational Attainment of Father of Respondents	.40	.38	.46*	.46	.42*	.35	.44*	.47*	.37+	.43*
Educational Attainment of Head of Heads of Households	.50*	.48*	.47*	.42*	.43*	.35*	.58*	.39*	.47*	.46*
Occupational Type of Father of Respondents	.33*	.36*	.30	.21	.38*	.29	.35*	.34*	.28*	.24
Occupational Type of Heads of Households	.53*	.48*	.49*	.41*	.43*	.41*	.56*	.45*	.48*	.42*

*Chi square test significant at the 0.05 level of probability

+Chi square test marginally significant from 0.10 level of probability.

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4. COMMUNITY AND LIFE SATISFACTION

A focus upon community life satisfaction is critical in assessing and isolating factors related to levels and patterns of living between and among poverty and nonpoverty families. Perceptions of and reactions to the social environment of interaction may influence current and future levels and patterns of living (Thompson, 1967; Blau and Duncan, 1967).

The following concerns are covered in this section: (a) a discussion of concepts used; (b) a discussion of the instrument; (c) presentation of data responses; and (d) significant association between responses and the poverty index. The material will proceed as indicated.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Social Environment: The Community

Much research based on the concept of community--space wherein a family lives and theoretically interacts--draws heavily upon Tonnies' Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft, published in 1887. Since his dichotomy of community and society was presented, social scientists have numerous definitions of "community" leading to considerable confusion. According to Hillery (1955), there are more than ninety (90) definitions of community ranging from Gemeinschaft-Gesellschaft and the often used terms of rural-urban (Redfield, 1947) through the various ecological approaches (Hawley, 1958) to the discussion of local social systems (Stacey, 1969). The latter approach bypassed the enigma of defining community and focused instead upon interrelationships of institutions in specific localities.

Because of the proliferation of definitions and various criticisms of the term "community," this study focused upon the social environment in which the families lived and coped, drawing upon the theoretical positions and research of the following: Thompson and McEwen, 1958; Bott, 1971; Thompson, 1967. The social environment of interaction, according to the literature, offers a wide range of social situations--employment, education, crime, human relations, and religion-- that influence levels and patterns of living. Within the social environment in which families live and cope, they experience integration or alienation and have specific notions about their quality of life.

Integration and Alienation

Integration is the feeling of belonging or being a part of the social environment and/or community; more concretely, integration refers to one's generalized, pervasive sense of "self-to-others belongingness" (Srole, 1956). Moreover, integration is a "barrier-free" system (Kitano, 1974), where constraints are at a minimum.

The concept of alienation, however, is at the opposite end of the continuum. The definition for alienation is complex because the word has been given so many denotations throughout the last two centuries, changing from Hegel (1965) through Marx and Engels (1965, 1970, 1957 and 1962), giving the word a multi-dimensional definition.

For the purpose of this discussion, alienation will be defined as perceived constraints and barriers that affect one's sense of integration into his/her social environment, thus, impacting the quality of life and patterns and levels of living.

Life Satisfaction and Quality of Life

One of the primary approaches towards understanding quality of life, and life satisfaction as it pertains to community or social environment, and human interaction, is to ascertain how an individual perceives his life (past, present, and future). Consequently, the selection of an appropriate instrument, with which to operationalize, becomes an essential element in the determination and understanding of those factors used by an individual in assessing quality of life. Moreover, the use of social indicators in reflecting various aspects of the quality of life (Wilson, 1969; Liu, 1973), is further representative of social and personal changes that occurred during stages of an individual's life cycle. Coughenour (1975) suggested that circumstances occurring at different stages of an individual's or family's life cycle directly influence their notion and preferences of quality of life. Derived from this concept was the fact that an individual's judgement and identification of self are largely determined by the relationship or status he/she has within society, and the values learned from his/her environment (Sherif and Cantril, 1947).

It is on the basis of this learning process that the individual defines elements of his own status and overall self-evaluation.

The use of each given theoretical concept (Social Community, Life Satisfaction and Quality of Life, and Social Integration and Alienation), was deemed essential in interpreting and explaining the patterns of response for this segment of the study.

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT AND RESPONSES

In development of the interview instrument, social environment, integration, and alienation were operationally defined separately from life satisfaction. A twenty seven item Likert-type instrument was developed to measure respondents' perceptions of their community environment, integration, and alienation. The social environment according to the literature, offers a wide range of social situations. Therefore, the instrument focused upon the social environment of interaction in five areas: employment, education, crime, human relations, and religion. These areas, according to the literature, are important in the development of one's status level and pattern of living.

The pretest instrument included items that were both closed and open-ended. The instrument was tested in one rural county in each of the 10 participating states. After critically assessing responses to each pretested item, the committee concluded that items from existing Likert scales provided better measurement of the sample's perception of their social environment following appropriate modifications. The items included were taken from scales developed by Guttman (1950), Likert (1967), Hill (1953), and Neal and Seeman (1962). Scores for responses to each item ranged from one to five. The instrument was again pretested in 10 states. At this point, several variables were eliminated because they lacked dissimilarity in their association with other variables. The remaining 27 statements, with at least two items for each of the areas of social environment, comprised the instrument. The statements were randomly arranged within a section of the total interview schedule (Items 23-47, 77-78). The order is indicated by the number in the list that follows. In an attempt to control response patterns, a few statements opposite in nature were distributed randomly among the 27 items.

Items in the regional instrument which fell under the subcategory of religion were:

29 Different churches here cooperate well with one another.

41 The churches here are a constructive factor for better community life.

44 Most people get their families to Sunday School or Church on Sunday.

The development of these questions was influenced by Laumann (1969) and Abelson (1954).

The second group of items in the instrument relating to employment, were:

40 A few people here make all the money.

77 Did or would you advise your children to leave this community to be successful?

78 There are enough jobs for young people in this community.

Publications from Aiken and Hage (1966) and Tausky and Dubin (1965), contributed to the construction of the employment variables.

The items pertaining to crime were drawn from Cohen (1969) and Merton (1938) and include the following:

25 This community is very orderly and peaceful.

26 The main problem in this community is crime.

36 It is dangerous to walk down the streets in this community.

47 I am often afraid that criminals will break in my home.

The human relations items that were included in the community satisfaction instrument were:

23 Friends are hard to find in the community.

26 A lot of the people here think they are too nice for you.

27 The Civil Rights Act of 1964 has made life better for people in this community.

28 Families in this community keep their children under control.

31 Some people can get by with almost anything while others take the rap for any little misdeed.

33 Most people try to use you.

34 Blacks and Whites get along well in this community.

35 Most people here show good judgement.

37 This community lacks real leaders.

42 I feel very much that I belong here.

43 You must spend money to be accepted in this community.

45 I feel welcome going to public activities in this community.

46 No one seems to care how this community looks.

In designing the set of human relations items, research drew upon pertinent sources: (Srole; Neal and Seeman). In addition, variables 27 and 34, relating to the Civil Rights and race relations, were influenced by Myrdal (1962), Bogardus (1928), and Kitano (1974).

Resources used in developing education variables were Hack and Hawley (1971, 1968).

Variables related to education were:

24 Our schools do a poor job of preparing young people for life.

32 Our schools do a good job in preparing students for college.

39 Our high school graduates take an active interest in making this community a better place in which to live.

The 27 item, Likert-type scale was introduced to the sample by the enumerators with the following statements:

Think of each of the statements that I am going to read to you as relating to the people of the entire community, both in town and on neighboring farms. If you think the statement fits this community very well, respond Strongly Agree, if it applies only partially, answer Agree, if you cannot see how it relates in one way or another to this particular community, answer Uncertain, if you think it is not true respond Disagree, and if it definitely is not true, answer Strongly Disagree.

Frequency distributions and factor analysis of the responses are presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2. A summary of the relationship of these items with the Poverty Index is presented in Table 4.3.

Another segment of this investigation included a series of inquiries developed to determine a generalized perception of quality of life. The measure used to acquire this information was an intensity ladder (ordinal scale), adapted from a 1946 study by Cantril. The nine step ladder, lowest to highest, to which interviewees responded was reduced to three response categories for each of the seven self-evaluations presented in Table 4.3.

Community Satisfaction (Table 4.1)

The table presents the combined strongly agree and agree responses by state for each of the 27 variables. The variable with the greatest percentage of agree responses was "feeling of belonging".

The responses ranged from 88% agree for Kentucky to 95% for North Carolina and Tennessee. The variable with the lowest agree response was "enough jobs for young people in community". A low of 6% in both Kentucky and Virginia and a high of 15% in Tennessee agreed. In comparing the aggregate responses of each state, Alabama had the highest mean agreement score of 53% and Virginia the lowest of 47%. It should be noted that this agreement score included responses to both positively and negatively worded items.

In comparing the across state mean scores for each variable in Table 4.1, variables indicating integration showed strong agreement; for example, a feeling of belongingness to community averaged 91%. On other variables suggesting nonintegration or alienation, such as "some people get by while others take the rap," there was only 61% agreement.

Community Satisfaction and the Poverty Index (Table 4.1)

Table 4.1 presents the results of the Pearsonian correlation (r) of community and life satisfaction by the poverty level index. Those states where Pearsonian correlations are significant at the .05 level are indicated. Variables that are indicated by a positive sign, are significantly more agreed upon by households in poverty than those not in poverty. Conversely, where those variables that are indicated by a negative sign, are significantly less likely to be agreed upon by households in poverty than those out of poverty where no signs are shown. The correlations are not significant at the .05 level.

A brief overview of the 27 variables revealed 12 variables significantly related to the poverty index at the 0.05 level of probability in five or more states. For analysis, the variables were divided into five sub-categories - religion, employment, human relations, crime, and education; delineation of the crime category. In eight of the 10 states, the each sub-category will follow.

Table 4.1. Community Satisfaction: Percentage of Responses "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" and the Direction of Significant Correlations (.05 level) Between Community Satisfaction and the Poverty Index

Variables	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Different churches cooperate well (29)	80	82	83-	74	86	78	78	77	82	61
Churches are constructive (41)	84	85	93-	84+	90	84	86	87	87	82
Most people attend church or sunday school (44)	70	70	75-	62+	73	59	67	59	58+	51
Few people make the money (40)	28+	30+	40	41	35+	43	44+	39+	48+	72
Advise children to leave community (77)	32	34	30+	34	48	49	46	40	33	66
Enough jobs for young people in community (78)	8	15	10	10	12	12	8+	6	16	6
Community is very orderly and peaceful (25)	76	82+	88	81+	80+	85	82+	85	85	56
Main problem in community is crime (30)	26+	26+	20+	27+	14	20+	26+	19+	30	62
Dangerous streets to walk (36)	20	20+	17+	20+	17+	17+	12+	17+	17+	37
Afraid criminals will break in home (47)	40+	41+	32	33+	28	49	37+	29	46+	73-
People think they are too nice for you (26)	18+	25+	18+	28+	31+	17+	31+	17+	21+	29
Civil Rights Act has made life better (27)	73-	60	76+	66-	64+	48	56	49	42	15
Families—children under control (28)	65	69+	71	58	68	66	67	68	71	57
People getting by while others take the rap (31)	45	55+	60+	74+	54	60	57+	56+	65+	86
Most people try to use you (33)	40+	42+	37+	38+	42+	30+	39+	36+	37+	30
Black and whites get along well here (34)	76	84	91	79	89	86	80	86	81	36
People show good judgement (35)	79	79	86	67	79	73	72-	74	73+	66+
Community lacks leaders (37)	45	47+	46+	58+	44	43	52+	39+	42+	70
People give bad name if different (38)	33+	42+	41	42	35+	36	51+	39+	33+	57
Feeling of belonging (42)	94	95+	94	89	90	91+	88	89+	95	88
Spend money to be accepted (43)	13+	15+	17+	15	16+	10	18+	16	11	11
Feel welcomed at public activities (45)	76+	88	88	77	90	82+	83	84+	86	86
No one seems to care how community looks (46)	20+	17+	27+	23+	23+	24+	26+	18	16+	44
Friends hard to find in community (23)	40+	34+	28+	43+	46+	37+	41+	30+	35+	43
Schools do a poor job preparing young people (24)	32	31	44+	40	38	45	41+	33+	41	42
Schools prepare students for college (32)	56	61	59-	51	67	42-	66	47-	51	43
High school graduates take an interest (39)	35	49	58-	45	57	39	45-	30	49	33
*Mean	48	51	53*	50	53	49	52	47	50	52

In the category of religion, items 29, 41, and 44 revealed little association with the poverty index. In Alabama, all three items were negative and in Mississippi two were positive. Only one other significant positive sign was present (Tennessee).

In the employment category, item 40, "few people make the money", six states -- Arkansas, Florida, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia -- showed a positive association with the poverty index. Item 77 showed poverty households in only one state (Alabama) to more often advise children to leave the community for employment. Only in Florida, poverty households were more likely to believe jobs were sufficient for young people (item 78).

Items 25, 30, 36, and 47 were grouped into poor were more likely to agree that it was dangerous to walk in the streets, and in seven of the 10 states the poor were more likely to feel crime was the main problem. Only in Kentucky the rich were more likely to be afraid that criminals will break into their homes. The majority in all states agreed that their community was very orderly and peaceful. For at least two of the three crime items (30, 36, 47) in all states but Kentucky and Arkansas, the poor were more likely to agree than were the above poverty households that crime is a problem. In three of these states, however, the poor were also more likely to agree that their communities were very orderly and peaceful (item 25). While it appeared that, in some samples, the poor tend to straddle the fence, most of the evidence suggests that the above poverty households feel much less vulnerable to acts of

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crime, than do the poor in these low-income, rural counties.

The next 14 items related to human relations. In all states except Kentucky, the poverty households were more likely to indicate alienation by agreeing that friends are hard to find in the community (23), that people think they are too nice for you (26), and that most people try to use you (33). At the other extreme (integration with community) only two of the state samples, Georgia and Virginia, found the poor to agree more frequently that they have a feeling of belonging (42) and feel welcome at public activities (45). Tonnies' Gemeinschaft aspect of community appears to be more consistent with the experience of the poor in rural areas of these two urban states than in the more rural states.

Variables 24, 32, and 34 related to education. "Schools do a poor job preparing young people" (24) showed agreement to be positively associated with poverty income in two states (Alabama and Florida). Conversely, agreement with the item "schools prepare students for college" was negatively associated with the poverty index in Alabama, Georgia, and Virginia. Agreement with "high school graduates take an interest in making this community a better place in which to live," was also negatively associated with the poverty index in Alabama and Florida. The pattern of dissatisfaction with the schools among the poor, was consistent in Alabama and Florida samples.

In general, the crime and human relation item correlations with the poverty index were most consistent. In at least eight of 10 states, low-income households felt more vulnerable to crime and more alienated from others than did higher income households.

Factor Analysis of the Community Satisfaction Variables (Table 4.2)

Principal components factor analysis for the 27 community satisfaction variables indicate that in five or more states 19 of 27 variables rendered loadings of .35 or larger on the first factor. These variables are considered to have

Table 4.2. Summary of First Factor Loading of Community Satisfaction Scale

Variables	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Different churches cooperate well	.52	.51	.32	.35	.29	.51	.42	.31	.49	.03
Churches are constructive	.61	.44	.29	.30	.34	.47	.37	.27	.44	-.17
Most people attend church or sunday school	.35	.10	.18	.22	.42	.37	.16	.28	.20	.05
Few people make the money	.46	.57	.49	.55	.36	.39	.48	.36	.53	.54
Advise children to leave community	.02	.26	.29	.19	.18	.11	.21	.04	.14	.23
Enough jobs for young people in community	.13	.10	.07	.11	.11	.17	.11	.14	-.02	.06
Community is very orderly and peaceful	.47	.32	.36	.45	.44	.47	.47	.28	.41	.67
Main problem in community is crime	.41	.44	.51	.45	.33	.29	.28	.44	.35	.68
Dangerous streets to walk	.36	.43	.49	.53	.37	.33	.40	.38	.33	.58
Afraid criminals will break in home	.45	.51	.41	.30	.22	.30	.29	.29	.37	.66
People think they are too nice for you	.60	.57	.66	.57	.37	.58	.61	.63	.59	.40
Civil Rights Act has made life better	.33	.16	-.11	-.18	.00	-.06	.12	-.13	.05	.02
Families--children under control	.53	.47	.41	.53	.42	.48	.48	.50	.33	.66
People getting by while others take the rap	.45	.43	.49	.47	.37	.46	.35	.46	.43	.48
Most people try to use you	.67	.67	.58	.71	.32	.58	.64	.65	.57	.30
Black and whites get along well here	.55	.39	.25	.42	.18	.42	.33	.17	.20	.29
People show good judgement	.50	.35	.46	.30	.52	.61	.41	.46	.44	.49
Community lacks leaders	.55	.45	.37	.31	.24	.34	.48	.34	.46	.40
People give bad name if different	.54	.68	.62	.61	.54	.57	.66	.65	.64	.43
Feeling of belonging	.49	.44	.31	.15	.55	.40	.52	.39	.34	.17
Spend money to be accepted	.51	.47	.49	.45	.40	.40	.52	.54	.55	.09
Feel welcomed at public activities	.37	.38	.27	.34	.59	.50	.38	.24	.50	.03
No one seems to care how community looks	.56	.56	.49	.50	.52	.45	.54	.56	.35	.19
Friends hard to find in community	.71	.46	.41	.52	.46	.46	.57	.53	.44	.58
Schools do a poor job preparing young people	.46	.31	.34	.36	.26	.25	.28	.18	.31	.27
Schools prepare students for college	.52	.21	.16	.08	.22	.20	.22	.02	.24	.38
High school graduates take an interest	.37	.13	.19	.14	.36	.33	.20	.09	.26	.32
% of Variance	59.00	47.80	41.70	38.30	36.50	41.70	39.90	39.00	42.20	38.50

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significant loadings. The percent of variance accounted for by the first factor exceeded 36% in all 10 states, with six states (Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee) having explained variance of 41% and over. South Carolina had 59% of its variance explained.

Items not loading on the first factor include all three of the education variables, two of the employment variables, two human relation variables, and one religion variable (church attendance). These items constitute second factors in several, but not all, states. The education variables form a rather consistent factor, as is evident in Table 4.1 where the responses to one negatively and one positively worded item evaluating the job schools are doing complement one another in every state. A second cluster of two items that does not fit in the first factor involves race issues. "Blacks and whites get along well here" is one of the most agreed upon item (76% to 91% in Table 4.1) in each state except Kentucky, thus reducing the variance to be allocated by factor analysis. Even so, four states exceed a .35 loading on factor one. The other item, "Civil Rights Act has made life better" is much more controversial. No state's responses load on the first factor, and the agreement scores (Table 4.1), except for Kentucky, ranged widely fr[illegible]% to 76%.

Life Satisfaction and the Poverty Index (Table 4.3)

In examining life satisfaction the measure used involved an intensity ladder (an ordinal scale adapted from Cantril, 1946). The ladder

Table 4.3. Self Evaluation of Life Satisfaction: Percentage of Responses on Top Three Steps (of 9) and the Direction of Significant Correlations Between Life Satisfaction and the Poverty Index

Variables		SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN
Where were you on ladder during best week in past year?	Low 1/	9.8	6.0	6.0	6.2	11.3	5.1	7.7	3.4	3.8
	Medium 2/	36.8	38.8	42.0	36.0	28.7	38.0	35.0	36.8	28.6
	High 3/	53.4	55.2	52.0	57.7	60.1	56.9	57.2	59.9	67.8
	Cramer's V	.37-	.33-	.29-	.22-	.26-	.27-	.41-	.12	.20-
	Total	(307)	(232)	(250)	(239)	(240)	(237)	(234)	(239)	(242)
Where were you on ladder during worst week in past year?	Low	65.9	63.2	67.8	55.8	64.6	65.2	64.9	56.7	58.7
	Medium	25.2	29.0	23.8	30.3	25.0	29.2	27.4	34.2	34.8
	High	8.8	7.8	8.5	13.9	10.5	5.5	7.7	9.2	6.5
	Cramer's V	.20-	.08	.21-	.25-	.20-	.16	.12	.04	.14
	Total	(30)	(231)	(248)	(2[illegible])	(240)	(236)	(234)	(240)	(247)
Where on the ladder were you most of the time?	Low	18.0	10.0	10.9	16.3	14.2	9.7	15.8	7.0	6.6
	Medium	54.5	55.4	61.1	50.2	49.2	59.7	59.0	58.4	54.4
	High	27.5	34.6	28.0	33.5	36.7	30.6	25.2	34.5	39.0
	Cramer's V	.37-	.28-	.37-	.23-	.25-	.10	.21-	.18	.22-
	Total	(306)	(231)	(247)	(239)	(240)	(238)	(234)	(243)	(241)
Where on this ladder were you five (5) years ago?	Low	18.3	23.0	19.3	22.3	21.7	18.3	26.8	15.6	10.8
	Medium	35.8	34.8	46.5	35.6	40.0	49.1	38.4	45.3	54.2
	High	45.9	42.1	34.2	42.2	38.4	32.4	34.9	39.1	35.0
	Cramer's V	.19-	.12	.23-	.06	.[illegible]7	.19	.24-	.06	.05
	Total	(307)	(230)	(243)	(233)	(240)	(234)	(232)	(243)	(240)
Where on this ladder do you expect to be five (5) years from now?	Low	12.2	7.0	8.2	7.5	14.7	8.8	4.7	6.9	7.4
	Medium	19.8	24.5	25.6	16.7	18.4	21.4	23.0	17.4	24.5
	High	68.0	68.4	66.3	75.8	66.9	69.8	72.3	75.7	68.1
	Cramer's V	.23-	.14	.23-	.16	.14	.22-	.32-	.13	.33-
	Total	(287)	(228)	(246)	(227)	(239)	(238)	(231)	(230)	(241)
Where on this ladder did your father stand when you were a child?	Low	35.7	24.4	35.8	30.7	26.3	34.1	38.9	14.4	20.7
	Medium	44.2	46.4	38.0	35.2	40.9	39.7	30.1	49.1	42.8
	High	20.1	29.3	26.1	34.2	32.9	26.2	30.6	36.4	36.4
	Cramer's V	.23-	.08	.15	.16	.14	.12	.33-	.11	.19
	Total	(274)	(222)	(237)	(199)	(240)	(229)	(229)	(236)	(236)
Where on this ladder did your grandfather stand?	Low	50.3	32.5	55.4	44.5	39.2	43.2	49.3	25.2	27.2
	Medium	39.4	46.3	27.2	22.2	35.6	37.9	28.1	51.1	46.0
	High	10.3	21.2	17.5	33.4	25.5	18.9	22.6	23.6	26.7
	Cramer's V	.22-	.17	.12	.17	.17	.14	.41-	.09	.19
	Total	(213)	(188)	(206)	(90)	(240)	(211)	(199)	(182)	(213)

1/ Lowest three steps on ladder; 2/ Middle three on ladder; 3/ Highest three steps on ladder

(-) Minus sign indicates a significant (.05 level) negative correlation between the evaluations (steps) and current pover

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was incorporated to simply represent the rang of socioeconomic status for the respondents' estimate of their own well-being (past, present, and future) compared to earlier generations. For "the best week in the past year," 52% (Kentucky) to 68% (Tennessee) of the respondents indicated the three highest steps on the nine-step ladder. For "the worst week during the past year," this range dropped to a low of 3% for Kentucky to 14% for Mississippi. Within these extremes, respondents were asked "where on the ladder were you most of the time, during past year?" In eight states, 28% to 39% of the respondents reported one of the top three steps. Kentucky at 21% and Tennessee at 39% were again the extremes. In all states except Georgia and Virginia, these rankings were correlated with above poverty status at the .05 level. Again, the urban states appeared to provide a Gemeinschaft sense of community for its rural poor that was not apparent in the more rural states.

In all states except Tennessee, respondents estimated that they were equal to or higher on this ladder five years ago than they were most of the time during the past year. Estimates for that time again excluding Kentucky (21%), ranged from 32% (Georgia) to 46% (South Carolina). Only South Carolina, Alabama, and Florida respondents showed a significant correlation between the "estimate for status" five years ago and current "above poverty status".

In all states, the expectation was higher five years from now than estimates of current or past status. fifty-six percent (Kentucky) to 76% (Mississippi and Virginia) of the respondents expect to have high statuses in five years. In six states, these correlations are significant with above poverty status. Those above the poverty line more likely to expect a higher status five years from now are South Carolina, Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, and Kentucky. Except for Tennessee, those are the states with the five lowest rankings most times in the current year (1981). Not only do higher income households expect to lead the recovery from the current depressed situations, but future expectations are appearing to be consistent with current statuses. Compared with "most of the time during the past year," shows that about twice as many respondents expect to be on the top three steps within the next five years.

Regarding estimates of status for past generations, 11% to 36% rank their fathers at a high status and 10% to 33% rank their grandfather at a high status. This compares with this generation's current high ranking of 21% to 39%. All state samples gave their fathers more high rankings than their grandfathers, but Virginia, Florida, and Mississippi give their fathers higher rankings than they did themselves. Only in South Carolina and Florida, the father and grandfather rankings were significantly related to above poverty status of the current generation household. Simply, this suggests that intergenerational mobility, measured in terms of respondents' estimates of present status, was not strongly determined by respondents' estimates of parents' statuses.

5. AGENCY UTILIZATION AND CLIENT SATISFACTION

The magnitude of this study made it virtually impossible to examine all facets of agencies and their services relative to helping disadvantaged families or persons to alleviate or to escape poverty. The existence of scores of both public and private agencies and services forced the researchers to focus on eight major public agencies. There were: 1) Employment Security (job service); 2) Food Stamps; 3) Farmers Home Administration; 4) Social Security; 5) Commission or Council on Aging; 6) Public Health Services; 7) Mental Health; and 8) Veterans Administration. Attention was limited in this report to agency utilization. If the agency or services in question had not been used (Tables 5.1 to 5.8), respondents were asked why service was never used (Tables 5.9 to 5.16). If they had used the services, they were asked to evaluate them (Tables 5.17 to 5.24).

Utilization of Employment Security (Table 5.1)

Of the 10 states, the range for the respondents who have ever used the employment security or job service agency was from 23% in Tennessee to 2% in Kentucky. Mississippi had the second highest percentage of users with 21%, followed by North Carolina and South Carolina 15% each.

An examination of the table showed a range of 8% to near 0% for respondents who have used employment security within the past year. Tennessee, which had the highest percent of

those who have ever used Employment Security, also had the highest percentage of respondents to use the agency within the past year. Florida (7%) was second, followed by both Alabama (6%) and Mississippi (6%). Virginia and Kentucky were lowest (near 0%).

Of the respondents presently using the Employment Security or Job Services, the range was 4% for Alabama to 0.0% for Kentucky. Florida and Tennessee were second and third (3%). There were no significant differences between states with large percentages of black respondents compared to those with high percentages of white respondents. Considering that more than one-half of the households were on welfare or retired, these figures are consistent with official unemployment figures at the time of the survey.

Table 5.1. Employment Security Utilization

States	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	14.5	5.1	2.6	312
North Carolina	14.5	4.8	1.2	249
Alabama	7.5	5.6	3.6	252
Mississippi	20.6	5.6	2.8	248
Arkansas	11.0	2.7	1.6	255
Georgia	4.8	1.2	0.4	248
Florida	14.2	6.3	3.3	240
Virginia	2.7	0.4	0.4	259
Tennessee	23.0	7.7	3.2	248
Kentucky	1.9	-	-	263

Utilization of Food Stamps (Table 5.2)

Food stamps produced the greatest range of respondents who have ever used the services, 49% to 11%. Kentucky (49%) had the highest percentage, while Virginia (11%) had the lowest. Mississippi was second with 46%, Florida (34%) third, and South Carolina and Tennessee were both fourth with 33% each.

The range of the respondents who had used food stamps within the past year was 39% for Kentucky to nine percent in Virginia. Mississippi was second with 34%, Alabama third with 29%, and Florida fourth with 28%. Tennessee showed the greatest disparity between the "have ever used" to that of "used in past year" decreasing from 33% to 18%.

As would be expected, the state by state rank for those who were presently using food stamps was similar to the "ever used" category. Again, Kentucky led all states with 37% of the respondents, Mississippi second (32%), Alabama third (26%), and Florida fourth (25%), while Virginia was last with 7%. With the exception of Virginia, all states had double digit percentages with a range of 37% for Kentucky to 13% for Georgia. For these samples, there were no significant differences in food stamp utilization between states with high black populations and high white populations.

Table 5.2. Food Stamps Utilization

States	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	32.7	24.4	21.5	312
North Carolina	32.5	23.3	20.5	249
Alabama	32.1	29.0	25.8	252
Mississippi	46.4	33.5	31.9	248
Arkansas	25.9	20.4	17.2	255
Georgia	18.5	13.7	12.5	248
Florida	33.8	28.3	25.4	240
Virginia	10.8	8.9	7.3	259
Tennessee	32.7	18.1	14.9	248
Kentucky	49.4	38.8	36.5	263

Utilization of Farmers Home Administration (Table 5.3)

The range of respondents who have "ever used" FmHA was 16% in South Carolina to 5% in Alabama. Mississippi was second (15%), followed by North Carolina (14%), Tennessee, and Georgia (13% each). When the respondents were asked if they had used FmHA within the past year, the range was 12% in South Carolina to 2% in Kentucky.

Regarding present use of FmHA, the range was similar with 12% in South Carolina to 2% in Kentucky. The three states Mississippi, Arkansas, and Georgia clustered near 9%. As expected, there were no discernible differences among the states with regard to race.

Table 5.3. Farmers Home Administration Utilization

States	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	16.4	12.2	11.5	312
North Carolina	13.7	5.2	4.4	249
Alabama	4.8	3.2	2.8	252
Mississippi	15.3	8.9	8.9	248
Arkansas	12.5	9.4	8.6	255
Georgia	12.9	7.3	8.5	248
Florida	7.5	3.3	3.3	240
Virginia	9.7	6.2	5.0	259
Tennessee	12.9	6.9	6.0	248
Kentucky	6.5	2.3	1.9	263

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Utilization of Social Security (Table 5.4)

The data on Social Security generated responses similar to those of Food Stamps, and was utilized by more respondents than any of the other agencies. The range was 43% to 26%, for those who "have ever used" social security. Mississippi being high and North Carolina low. Florida was second (41%), Arkansas was third (39%), and South Carolina fourth (37%). Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and Georgia clustered slightly above 33%. Here again, there were no discernible differences among states with high black populations as opposed to those with high white populations.

Responses to "used in the past year" showed little variation from the response pattern for the "have ever used" question. In all states, there was less than a four percentage point change (decrease) between the two questions. The data on present use of Social Security produced a range of 41% to 24%, with Mississippi high and North Carolina low. The remaining eight states ranged from 38% to 29%. There were no significant differences when the percentages were viewed by states with large black populations versus large white populations.

Table 5.4. Social Security Utilization

States	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	37.2	35.9	35.6	312
North Carolina	26.0	23.7	23.7	249
Alabama	35.9	35.7	35.7	252
Mississippi	42.7	40.3	40.7	248
Arkansas	39.2	37.3	36.9	255
Georgia	33.1	33.1	32.3	248
Florida	40.8	38.3	38.3	240
Virginia	33.2	29.7	29.0	259
Tennessee	33.9	29.4	29.4	248
Kentucky	33.5	31.9	30.0	263

Utilization of the Commission on Aging (Table 5.5)

A high of 4% to a low of 0.4% of the respondents reported "having ever used" the Commission on Aging. Arkansas led all states, while two states were tied for least usage (Mississippi and North Carolina). Florida was second (3%), Alabama third (3%), and South Carolina fourth (2%). As was expected, there were no marked differences among the states with regards to race.

Questions on "used in the past year" and "present use" of the Commission on Aging produced identical percentages for all states except South Carolina and Georgia. The range of percentages was four percent to zero percent. In both instances, Arkansas was high and North Carolina and Mississippi were low.

Table 5.5. Commission on Aging Utilization

State	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	1.9	1.6	1.3	312
North Carolina	0.4	-	-	249
Alabama	2.8	1.6	1.6	252
Mississippi	0.4	-	-	248
Arkansas	3.9	3.9	3.9	255
Georgia	1.2	1.2	0.8	248
Florida	3.3	2.5	2.5	240
Virginia	0.8	0.8	0.8	259
Tennessee	1.2	0.4	0.4	248
Kentucky	0.8	0.4	0.4	263

Utilization of Health Services (Table 5.6)

The 10 states sampled differed considerably in percentages of respondents who "have ever used" the Health Services. The range of percentages was 25% for Florida to a low of 2% for Virginia and Kentucky. Three states had percentages of 20% or more (Florida, Tennessee, and Mississippi), while the remaining states with the exception of Virginia and Kentucky (two percent) had ranges of 18% to 10%.

Of the respondents who used Health Services within the past year, the range was 19% in Florida to a low of two percent in Kentucky. There was a substantial decrease from "ever used" to "used in the past year," with Mississippi and Tennessee decreasing as much as 11%.

Table 5.6. Health Service Utilization

State	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	14.1	7.7	5.4	312
North Carolina	17.7	12.0	9.2	249
Alabama	9.9	3.6	1.6	252
Mississippi	22.2	10.9	7.7	248
Arkansas	9.8	6.7	5.9	255
Georgia	12.1	9.3	4.4	248
Florida	25.4	19.2	15.0	240
Virginia	2.3	1.5	1.5	259
Tennessee	23.0	12.1	8.5	248
Kentucky	2.3	1.5	1.1	263

The data on present use of Health Services showed a range of 15% in Florida to 1% in Kentucky. Again, there was a decline from "used

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in the past year" to those "presently using," by an average of 3%. North Carolina was second with 9.2% of the respondents "presently using" Health Services, followed by Tennessee (9%), Mississippi (8%), and Arkansas (6%). No apparent differences existed between states with large black populations and those with large white populations.

Utilization of Mental Health Services (Table 5.7)

Of all agencies researched, Mental Health had the lowest participation rate. The range for those who "have ever used" Mental Health was 4% in South Carolina to 0% in Kentucky. Turning to those who have used Mental Health in the past year, Arkansas was high (2%), followed by South Carolina, Florida, Mississippi, and Tennessee. Virginia and Kentucky were last with 0% of the respondents.

The range of respondents "presently using" Mental Health was 1.6% in Arkansas and Tennessee to 0% in Virginia and Kentucky. The remaining states clustered near 1% of present users. Except for a correlation between percent black and percent white having "ever used Mental Health services," no consistent patterns were revealed in regards to states with large black populations as opposed to those with large white populations.

Table 5.7. Mental Health Utilization

State	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	4.2	1.9	1.0	312
North Carolina	3.2	0.8	0.8	249
Alabama	2.0	0.8	0.8	252
Mississippi	3.6	1.6	1.2	248
Arkansas	3.5	2.0	1.6	255
Georgia	2.0	1.2	1.2	248
Florida	1.7	1.7	0.8	240
Virginia	0.4	-	-	259
Tennessee	2.4	1.6	1.6	248
Kentucky	-	-	-	263

Utilization of Veterans Administration (Table 5.8)

The data on "have ever used the Veterans Administration" produced a range of 15% for Florida to a low of 7%, for Arkansas.

There was a decline again, from "have ever used" to that of "used in the past year" categories, with Tennessee declining by almost 8%. The range for the "used in the past year" category was 9% in Florida to 3% in Virginia. The remaining states tended to cluster with less than 3% separation.

The range for those "presently using" the Veterans Administration was nearly 9% in Florida to below 3% in Virginia. Again, there was no significant relationship among the states according to black-white population.

Table 5.8. Veterans Administration Utilization

State	Have Ever Used	Used In Past Year	Are You Presently Using	Total
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	7.7	4.5	4.5	312
North Carolina	8.0	3.2	2.8	249
Alabama	10.3	5.6	4.0	252
Mississippi	9.7	5.2	4.8	248
Arkansas	6.7	3.9	3.1	255
Georgia	9.7	5.2	4.8	248
Florida	15.4	9.2	8.8	240
Virginia	8.5	3.1	2.7	259
Tennessee	12.1	4.8	4.0	248
Kentucky	9.5	6.5	6.1	263

Table 5.9 through 5.16 report reasons for "nonuse" from those "never having used" the eight agencies or services. In all eight tables reasons for nonuse have been grouped into five categories: Income too high, Age or Transportation (Mobility), Not needed, Lack of Information, or other reasons. The lack of information category included "do not know what it is" or "where to go to get it".

Why Employment Security Never Used (Table 5.9)

The range for "not needed" was 94% in Tennessee to 61% in Kentucky. The remaining categories had percentages in single digits except the "lack of information" category which had a response range of 34% in Kentucky to 1% in Florida. Information problems were more frequently reported by two other agencies. There was no unique pattern in relation to percentage black or white population of the states.

Table 5.9. Employment Security - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	0.4	2.3	84.4	4.9	8.0	264
NC	-	3.5	83.2	9.8	3.5	173
AL	2.3	3.3	63.5	26.6	2.3	222
MS	2.0	2.5	79.7	13.3	2.5	197
AR	0.5	2.1	73.4	21.9	2.1	188
GA	0.4	2.6	84.4	9.1	3.5	231
FL	-	1.8	94.0	1.2	3.0	167
VA	3.0	7.2	67.6	20.9	1.3	235
TN	0.5	1.0	94.2	3.2	1.1	185
KY	1.6	1.6	61.0	34.2	1.6	123

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Why Food Stamps Never Used (Table 5.10)

The range for the "not needed" category was 87% in Georgia to 69% in Arkansas. The second highest response category was "income too high" with a range of 26% in Virginia to 6% in Georgia. "Lack of information" was a problem for no more than 3% in any state. "Mobility" (too old or transportation) was reported as a problem by only five respondents in the total 10-state sample.

Table 5.10. Food Stamps - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	16.4	-	75.1	0.5	7.8	201
NC	14.5	-	79.1	2.4	4.0	124
AL	14.3	1.2	76.8	1.2	6.5	168
MS	22.7	-	74.3	3.0	-	132
AR	25.3	-	68.8	2.7	3.2	154
GA	5.6	-	87.4	3.0	3.0	197
FL	15.5	1.0	80.6	0.8	3.1	129
VA	25.8	0.5	71.8	0.5	1.4	221
TN	22.5	-	73.8	0.6	3.1	160
KY	10.0	2.0	86.0	-	2.0	50

Why FmHA Never Used (Table 5.11)

Again, the most frequent response category was "not needed," ranged from 92% in Georgia to 71% in Kentucky. For FmHA, the second category with a high response rate was the "lack of information" category with a range from 21% in Kentucky to 5% in Virginia. Alabama was second with 17% followed by North Carolina (13%) and Arkansas (12%).

Table 5.11. FmHA - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	0.4	-	86.0	9.7	3.9	257
NC	0.6	0.6	82.2	13.0	3.6	169
AL	0.4	1.8	76.2	17.4	3.6	222
MS	3.3	1.0	85.2	8.6	1.9	209
AR	2.2	0.5	81.8	11.8	3.7	187
GA	0.5	-	91.5	6.1	1.9	213
FL	-	1.1	84.1	6.8	8.0	175
VA	11.8	1.4	79.0	4.6	3.2	220
TN	5.0	1.5	81.6	8.9	3.0	202
KY	7.9	-	70.6	20.7	0.8	126

Why Social Security Never Used (Table 5.12)

The range for the "not needed" category was 94% each in Florida and Tennessee to 61% in Virginia. The "other" category was second with a range of 28% in Virginia to 1% in Kentucky. While "high income" was second most reported by Kentucky respondents. This could be interpretated as equallent to "not needed". Information on Social Security was lacking for no more than 6% of the respondents (Arkansas).

Table 5.12. Social Security - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	-	0.5	91.2	1.6	6.7	193
NC	-	-	73.3	-	26.7	131
AL	2.7	1.8	79.3	3.6	12.6	111
MS	5.0	-	77.9	3.6	13.5	140
AR	3.9	-	83.3	5.9	6.9	101
GA	1.9	-	92.0	1.2	4.9	162
FL	-	-	94.0	1.0	5.0	101
VA	5.5	-	60.8	5.5	28.2	163
TN	2.6	-	94.0	3.4	2.6	117
KY	30.7	-	68.2	1.1	1.1	88

Why Commission on Aging Never Used (Table 5.13)

The "not needed" category was again the most frequent response with a range of 88% in Florida to 48% in Kentucky. The "did not know where or what (information)" category was second, with a range of 41% in Kentucky to 8% in Florida. The commission on aging service had the most wide-spread information problem of any agency in the study. Information appeared to be more often expressed as "a problem" in the predominately white samples.

Table 5.13. Commission on Aging - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	-	0.7	82.7	10.9	5.7	300
NC	-	0.5	73.5	21.1	4.9	185
AL	-	-	69.4	26.8	3.9	232
MS	-	1.3	72.4	23.5	2.8	246
AR	0.6	-	60.1	38.2	1.1	178
GA	0.4	-	83.2	12.6	3.8	237
FL	-	-	87.8	8.2	4.0	147
VA	2.9	-	61.4	19.1	16.6	241
TN	1.5	1.0	65.3	28.2	4.0	198
KY	6.3	-	48.4	41.3	4.0	126

Why Health Services Never Used (Table 5.14)

The range for the "not needed" category was 94% in Florida to 55% in Kentucky. "Lack of information" category was second with a range of 40% in Kentucky to 0% in Florida. "Lack of information" on health services was second to the Commission on Aging's information problem.

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Table 5.14. Health Service - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	0.8	-	75.6	17.7	6.0	266
NC	-	-	86.6	7.3	6.1	164
AL	-	0.4	75.7	22.1	1.8	226
MS	-	1.0	87.6	11.4	-	193
AR	2.9	-	71.2	24.1	1.8	183
GA	1.0	-	84.3	11.3	3.4	203
FL	1.5	0.7	93.5	-	-	137
VA	5.3	-	71.4	9.7	3.1	228
TN	16.2	-	74.9	6.7	2.2	179
KY	4.1	-	55.3	39.8	0.8	123

Why Mental Health Services Never Used (Table 5.15)

The "not needed" category ranged from 99% in Tennessee to 78% in Kentucky for mental health service. The second largest category was the "lack of information" category with a range of 12% in Alabama to 0% in Tennessee. Mental health services were most frequently reported as "not needed" among the eight services.

Table 5.15. Mental Health Service - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	-	-	97.7	0.6	1.7	297
NC	-	-	99.0	1.0	-	192
AL	-	0.8	87.6	11.6	-	242
MS	-	-	90.8	9.2	-	238
AR	0.5	0.5	90.8	8.1	-	208
GA	0.4	-	96.2	2.1	1.3	239
FL	-	-	94.7	5.3	-	188
VA	2.1	-	83.5	11.5	2.9	242
TN	-	0.4	99.2	0.4	-	236
KY	1.3	-	78.1	4.0	16.6	151

Why Veterans Administration Never Used (Table 5.16)

The response rate was again highest on the "not needed" category with a range of 98% in Florida to 58% in Kentucky. The second largest category was "other" with a range of 26% in Virginia to 0% in Florida. There were no unique or significant patterns revealed among the states with large black populations versus those with large white populations.

Tables 5.17 through 5.24 depict the respondents rating of the services rendered at the eight agencies. These ratings were used to measure the attitudes and perceptions held by clients. Moreover, they were indicators for addressing client's satisfaction. The five most frequent responses were: "very good"; "good-solved problem"; "good-did not solve problem"; "fair"; and "poor". The response rate for "fair" was combined with those of "poor" as the "fair" category had, mostly, low percentages. Aggregate responses to questions on age, sex, or race discrimination were included in brackets for each table.

Table 5.16. VA Service - Why Service Never Used

State	High Income	Age Transp.	Not Needed	Lack Infor.	Other	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	0.4	-	82.7	0.4	16.5	284
NC	-	-	79.4	1.8	18.8	165
AL	1.4	-	80.4	14.3	3.4	148
MS	-	0.5	73.9	7.2	18.4	222
AR	0.8	-	92.1	4.7	2.4	126
GA	0.5	0.5	95.2	0.5	3.3	211
FL	-	0.8	97.5	1.7	-	121
VA	4.6	0.5	63.2	5.6	26.1	218
TN	-	0.7	88.8	-	7.9	153
KY	23.1	-	57.7	-	19.2	130

Rating of Service of Employment Security (Table 5.17)

Respondents were asked to rate "the service received" when they utilized the Employment Service (Job Service in some states). The range for the "very good" category was 50% in Kentucky (N = 4) to 4% in Arkansas. North Carolina and Tennessee reported percentages of 25% or higher and three states responded lower. The rating of "good, solved problem" category had a range of 89% in Georgia to 18% in Mississippi. Three states had percentages of 50% or greater, Alabama (72%), Virginia (71%) and Arkansas (52%). Except for Mississippi (82%), and Florida (58%), 50% or more of the evaluations were in these two highest categories.

Table 5.17. Employment Security - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	17.8	46.7	13.3	22.2	-	45
NC	35.7	21.4	25.0	17.9	(7.1)*	28
AL	16.7	72.2	-	11.1	(11.1)	18
MS	8.9	17.6	76.6	5.9	(2.9)	34
AR	3.7	51.9	25.9	18.5	-	27
GA	11.1	88.9	-	-	9	
FL	11.5	30.8	30.8	26.9	(7.7)	26
VA	14.3	71.4	14.3	-	-*	7
TN	25.0	25.0	20.0	30.0	(7.5)	40
KY	50.0	25.0	-	25.0	-	4

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Rating of Food Stamps Service (Table 5.18)

The range for the "very good" category was 50% in Virginia to 7% in South Carolina. Four more states had percentage above the 30% response level: North Carolina (38%), Florida (34%), Arkansas (32%), and Mississippi (31%). The majority of the responses were in the "good, solved problem" category with a range of 72% in South Carolina to 29% in Arkansas. Arkansas and Kentucky respondents give more than 10% of their food stamps service ratings in the "good, solved problem" category. The "fair to poor" category ranged from 28% in Arkansas to 4% in Virginia. "Fair to poor" ratings were more frequent in the states with larger proportion of black populations. Also, indications of discrimination were more frequent in these states.

Table 5.18. Food Stamps - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	7.0	72.0	3.0	18.0	(2.0)	100
NC	38.4	41.1	5.5	15.0	(6.8)	73
AL	15.8	63.1	6.6	14.5	(2.6)	76
MS	31.5	54.3	7.6	6.6	(3.2)	92
AR	32.3	29.2	10.8	27.7	(4.6)	65
GA	11.9	62.0	7.1	19.0	(4.8)	42
FL	33.8	53.5	1.4	11.3	(5.6)	71
VA	50.0	38.5	7.7	3.8	-	26
TN	18.0	70.0	3.3	8.2	-	61
KY	19.1	48.2	25.5	7.2	-	110

Table 5.19. FmHA - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	19.6	64.7	3.9	11.8	(9.8)	51
NC	34.8	43.5	8.7	13.0	(5.8)	34
AL	8.3	83.4	-	8.3	-	12
MS	52.2	39.1	-	8.7	-	23
AR	48.3	45.2	-	6.5	(6.4)	31
GA	30.0	56.7	6.7	6.6	(3.3)	30
FL	50.0	35.8	7.1	7.1	-	14
VA	63.6	31.9	4.5	-	-	22
TN	13.0	69.7	4.5	13.0	(4.3)	23
KY	16.7	75.0	-	8.3	(8.3)	12

Rating of FmHA Service (Table 5.19)

The range for the combined "very good" and "good, solved problem" category ranged from 95% in Virginia to 78% in North Carolina. The remaining states had at least 83% response in these high service ratings categories for FmHA.

On the "fair to poor" category, the range was 13% in North Carolina and Tennessee to 0% in Virginia. "Fair to poor" ratings in South Carolina (12%), Arkansas (6%), and Kentucky (8%) were closely paralleled by complaints of age, race, or sex discrimination.

Rating of Social Security (Table 5.20)

The range of responses on the two most favorable social security categories was 96% in Mississippi to 82% in Georgia. The "fair to poor" category had a range of 11% in Georgia to 1% in Mississippi. Age, sex and or race discrimination was mentioned by an average of less than 1% of all respondents.

Table 5.20. Social Security - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	15.8	76.3	0.9	7.0	-	114
NC	61.5	34.6	-	3.8	-	64
AL	22.5	66.3	2.2	9.0	(1.1)	89
MS	63.5	32.6	2.9	1.0	(1.0)	104
AR	45.5	41.4	7.1	6.0	(3.0)	99
GA	31.3	51.1	6.3	11.3	(1.2)	80
FL	59.6	34.8	2.2	3.4	-	89
VA	42.4	51.7	-	5.9	(1.2)	85
TN	20.8	72.7	-	6.5	-	77
KY	36.3	51.2	7.5	5.0	(1.2)	80

Table 5.21. Commission on Aging - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	50.0	50.0	-	-	-	6
NC	-	100.0	-	-	-	1
AL	16.7	66.6	-	16.7	(16.7)	6
MS	100.0	-	-	-	-	1
AR	70.0	10.0	-	20.0	(10.0)	10
GA	33.3	66.7	-	-	-	3
FL	71.4	28.6	-	-	-	7
VA	50.0	50.0	-	-	-	2
TN	-	100.0	-	-	-	1
KY	100.0	-	-	-	-	1

Rating of Commission on Aging Service (Table 5.21)

Ten or fewer respondents per state rated the Commission on Aging. Only in Alabama and Arkansas, a total of three respondents gave ratings in the "fair to poor" category.

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Rating of Health Service (Table 5.22)

The range of responses for the two top rating categories was 96% in Georgia and Alabama to 75% in Virginia (N = 4). Ironically, these two highly rated states were the only two states with reports of discrimination by the health service. On the "fair to poor" category, responses ranged from 17% in Kentucky to 3% in Mississippi.

Table 5.22. Health Services - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	20.9	74.5	-	4.6	-	43
NC	36.1	58.3	-	5.6	-	36
AL	37.5	58.3	4.2	-	(8.0)	24
MS	42.4	54.6	-	3.0	-	33
AR	40.0	48.0	-	12.0	-	25
GA	46.7	50.0	3.3	-	(3.8)	30
FL	44.4	42.6	3.7	9.3	-	54
VA	25.0	50.0	25.0	-	-	4
TN	29.2	56.2	8.3	6.3	-	48
KY	66.6	16.7	-	16.7	-	6

Table 5.23. Mental Health Services - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	15.4	53.8	7.7	23.1	-	13
NC	50.0	-	-	50.0	-	8
AL	-	80.0	20.0	-	-	5
MS	40.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	-	5
AR	37.5	37.5	25.0	-	-	8
GA	66.7	33.3	-	-	-	3
FL	50.0	50.0	-	-	-	2
VA	100.0	-	-	-	-	1
TN	60.0	40.0	-	-	-	5
KY	-	-	-	-	-	-

Rating of Mental Health Services (Table 5.23)

Only six state's samples had five or more respondents who rated mental health service. The range of responses in the top two categories was 100% in Georgia, Florida, Virginia, Tennessee, to 50% in North Carolina. States with large proportion of blacks were more likely to rate the service "fair to poor": South Carolina (23%), North Carolina (50%) and Mississippi (20%).

Rating of Veterans Administration Service (Table 5.24)

The range of high ratings for the veterans administration was 96% in South Carolina to 65% in Kentucky. "Fair to poor" ratings ranged from a high of 19% in Virginia to 4% in South Carolina.

Table 5.24. Veteran's Administration - Service Rating

State	Very Good	Good Solved Problem	Good, Not Solved Problem	Fair to Poor	Age, Sex Race Discr.	Valid Cases
	%	%	%	%	%	N
SC	25.0	70.8	-	4.2	-	24
NC	60.0	26.6	6.7	6.7	-	15
AL	26.2	60.9	4.3	8.6	-	23
MS	43.7	37.5	6.3	12.5	-	16
AR	56.3	31.3	-	12.4	-	16
GA	41.7	41.7	4.2	12.4	-	24
FL	55.6	29.6	7.4	7.4	(11.0)	27
VA	38.1	42.9	-	19.0	-	21
TN	24.0	64.0	-	12.0	-	23
KY	40.0	25.0	25.0	10.0	-	20

Agency Utilization and the Poverty Index (Table 5.25)

Responses to three questions about agency utilization were tested by correlation with the poverty index: first were the responses to the question "have you ever used" (the respective agencies)?; second was the question "why services were never used?" for those responding negatively to the first question; and third, was the question "how would you rate the service?" for those responding "yes" to the first question. Those questions and agencies that correlated with the poverty index are discussed below.

Ever Used Employment Security: For Mississippi and Florida, the chi square test between householders' use of employment security and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .10; there was a low degree of association between this variable and the poverty index.

Why Never Used Employment Security: For South Carolina, North Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, and Kentucky, the chi square test between households' reasons for nonuse of employment security and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05, while VA was significant at p = .10; there was a low degree of association. In each state, the prespondence of households above poverty who never used the service said the service was "not needed," while a significant percentage of households below poverty in each state expressed a "lack of knowledge" as the reason.

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Table 5.25. Summary of Chi Square Tests of Independence and Phi/Cramer's V Measures of Association to Identify Significant Relationships Between Agency Items and the Poverty Index

Agencies	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
Employment Security										
Ever Used	.05	.08	.07	.13+	.12	.04	.13+	.00	.02	.05
Why Never Used	.25*	.27*	.38	.31*	.18	.31	.27*	.23+	.25	.30*
How Service Rated	.34	.25	.29	.26	.38	.25	.45	.45	.32	.58
Food Stamps										
Ever Used	.48*	.46*	.37*	.36*	.46*	.31*	.52*	.25*	.41*	.34*
Why Never Used	.21*	.35*	.27*	.27*	.31*	.30+	.39*	.29*	.25*	.39+
How Service Rated	.39*	.29	.21	.09	.35+	.27	.15	.38	.37+	.23
FmHA										
Ever Used	.03	.10	.05	.11	.04	.08	.10	.02	.10	.12
Why Never Used	.27	.26+	.24+	.32*	.30*	.23+	.34*	.29*	.28*	.23
How Service Rated	.19	.56	.59	.38	.09	.43	.57	.39	.40	.25
Social Security										
Ever Used	.22*	.25*	.25*	.27*	.31*	.29*	.40*	.33*	.32*	.21*
Why Never Used	.22*	.13	.41*	.32*	.29	.33*	.28*	.20	.25	.19
How Service Rated	.18	.26	.15	.26+	.26	.36	.10	.31*	.21	.19
Commission on Aging										
Ever Used	.11	.07	.01	.08	.14*	.06	.09	.15	.09	.05
Why Never Used	.23*	.33	.31*	.27*	.17	.33*	.31*	.20	.30*	.38*
How Service Rated	.45	-	.55	-	.57	-	.20	-	-	-
Health Service										
Ever Used	.00	.17*	.11	.07	.11	.19	.04	.04	.22*	.10
Why Never Used	.33*	.28*	.37*	.23*	.26*	.40*	.20	.15	.28*	.32*
How Service Rated	.33	.35	.19	.21	.34	.24	.39+	.56	.49*	.32
Mental Health										
Ever Used	.06	.07	.15+	.00	.15*	.04	.05	.04	.13	-
Why Never Used	.09	.08	.19+	.23*	.16	.07	.07	.16	.06	.14
How Service Rated	.27	.58	-	.76	.47	.50	-	.50	.16	-
Veterans Administration										
Ever Used	.07	.06	.13+	.04	.02	.08	.02	.05	.02	.35
Why Never Used	.12	.16	.16	.24*	.13	.20+	.33*	.16	.18*	.05
How Service Rated	.27	.70	.30	.31	.42	.32	.42	.09	.26	.34

*Chi square test significant from 0.0500 to 0.0000 level of probability

+Chi square test marginally significant from .0501 to 0.1000 level of probability

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Ever Used Food Stamps: For all states the chi square test between household use of food stamps and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05; there was a moderate degree of association for South Carolina, North Carolina, Arkansas, Florida, and Tennessee, while there was a low degree of association for Alabama, Mississippi, Georgia, Virginia, and Kentucky.

Why Never Used Food Stamps: For all states except Georgia and Kentucky, the chi square test between households' reasons for nonuse of food stamps and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05. In all states, nearly 90% of households above poverty indicated "not needed" or "income too high" as reasons for nonuse of food stamps. While the majority of never user households below poverty also answer in these categories. A significant percent gave "lack of knowledge" or "other" reasons for nonuse of food stamps.

How Food Stamps Service is Rated: The chi square test between households rating of food stamps service and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05 for South Carolina and p = .10 for Arkansas and Tennessee. There was a moderate degree of association for South Carolina and a low degree of association for Arkansas and Tennessee. User households below poverty in South Carolina indicate both high satisfaction and dissatisfaction with food stamps service while above poverty households rated the service "fair to good". In Tennessee, above poverty households were generally less satisfied than below poverty households, while in Arkansas the reverse was indicated.

Why FmHA Service Never Used: For Virginia, Mississippi, Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, and Tennessee the chi square test between households' reasons for nonuse of FmHA and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05. It was significant at p = .10 for North Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. There was a low degree of association between this variable and the poverty index. Larger percentage of above poverty users stated "not needed," while some of the below poverty users mentioned "lack of knowledge of the service" for not using it.

Ever Used Social Security: For South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky the chi square test between household use of social security and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05; there was a low degree of association for all states except Florida, which had a moderate degree of association. The data suggested households below poverty used the service more frequently.

Why Social Security Never Used: For South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Georgia, and Florida, the chi square test between households reasons for nonuse of social security and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05; there was a low degree of association for South Carolina, Mississippi, Georgia, and Florida, while there was a moderate degree of association for Alabama. In all states about 95% of the households above poverty mentioned that the service was "not needed" while those below poverty mentioned "not needed" or "do not know" about service.

How Social Security is Rated: The chi square test between households' rating of social security and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05 for Virginia and p = .10 for Mississippi. There was a low degree of association. Suggest user households above poverty were more satisfied.

Ever Used Commission on Aging: For Arkansas, the chi square test between household use of COA and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05; there was a low degree of association, suggesting that the below poverty households were frequent users.

Why Commission on Aging Never Used: For South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, and Kentucky the chi square test between the households' reasons for nonuse of COA and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05; there was a low degree of association. More than 80% of the above poverty households stated that the service was "not needed" while those below poverty gave either "lack of knowledge" or "not needed" as their reason.

Ever Used Health Service: For North Carolina and Tennessee, the chi square test between household use of health service and the

poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05; there was a low degree of association, suggesting below poverty households were frequent users.

Why Health Service Never Used: For South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky the relationship between household reason for nonuse of health service and the poverty index was statistically significant at p =.05. There was a low degree of association for South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Kentucky, while there was a moderate degree of association for Georgia. Above poverty households, except in Georgia, find the services "not needed," while below poverty households stated either "lack of knowledge" or "not needed" as reasons for nonuse of the service.

How Health Service is Rated: The chi square test between households' rating of health service and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05 for Tennessee and p = .10 for Florida; there was a low degree of association for Florida and a moderate degree of association for Tennessee suggesting more above poverty household satisfaction for Florida and vice versa for Tennessee.

Ever Used Mental Health Service: The chi square test between the households' use of mental health service and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05 for Arkansas and p = .10 for Alabama; there was a low degree of association. The data suggest households below poverty were frequent users.

Why Mental Health Service Never Used: The chi square test between the households' reasons for nonuse of mental health services and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05 for Mississippi and p = .10 for Alabama; there was a low degree of association between this variable and the poverty index. More than 90% and 80% of the above and below poverty households respectively, reported this service as "not needed". From among the below poverty households in the states a significant number stated "lack of knowledge" as the reason.

Ever Used VA Service: For Alabama the chi square test between household use of VA service and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .10; there was a low degree of association between this variable and the poverty index, suggesting households above poverty in the Alabama sample used the service more frequently than Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

Why VA Service Never Used: The chi square test between the households' reasons for nonuse of VA service and the poverty index was statistically significant at p = .05 for Mississippi, Florida, and Tennessee and p = .10 for Georgia; there was a low degree of association. Except for Mississippi, in these states more than 95% of the above poverty households said the service was "not needed". In the other three states i.e., Georgia, Florida, and Tennessee, about 10% of the below poverty households indicated some lack of knowledge.

AGENCY DIRECTORS QUESTIONNAIRE

The nine agencies surveyed with the agency questionnaire were Employment Security or Job Service, Food Stamps, Farmers Home Administration, Social Security, Commission on Aging, Health Services, Mental Health, Veterans Administration, and Vocational Rehabilitation. These nine agencies in the three sample counties of each state were surveyed. In all, 270 questionnaires were mailed during the summer and fall of 1981. Serious consideration with field teaching of both unobtrusive methods and the survey was conducted prior to 1981 (Howie, et. al; 1982).

To assure a high response rate for the mailed questionnaires, a series of follow-up techniques were utilized. These included subsequent telephone calls as reminders to the directors, additional mailing to replace questionnaires that had been lost or misdirected, and a limited number of postal card inquiries when the promised response date was expired.

Of the 270 questionnaires mailed to agency directors, 217 or 80% were returned. In some instances, responses were sent from the state or district offices which encompassed two or more counties for that agency (e.g., in one state the Vocational Rehabilitation agency director's questionnaire contained data for the entire state instead of the three target counties). Six of the 217 questionnaires were listed in the

"other" category (e.g., Children's Home Shelter). In the first instance, data were extrapo- lated for the target counties and in the second case six questionnaires were deleted. This report, therefore, was based on the 211 usable questionnaires that comprised the final data set.

Agency Data Analysis

Descriptive analyses and inferential statistics were applied to the data set. When chi square statistics were used, many of the cells had insufficient numbers (less than 5 in a cell) and, thus, did not meet the criteria for valid chi square tests. The dependent variable (agency) was collapsed from large, medium, and small agencies to a dichotomy of large (500 clients or more) and small (499 or less). This procedure also produced far too many cells with less than five. All of the analyses resulted in chi squares with 20% or more of the cells with less than five.

An attempt to utilize analysis of variance showed that the instrument was delimiting in that it failed to discriminate or produce variance within agencies among the states. In the case of federal agencies or agencies following specific guidelines, there was little variation in responses to the items by the respondents (i.e., Employment Security was almost universally identical in answers received from state to state).

Consulation with two statisticians provided no additional alternative inferential statistic for which analyses of the data set would be appropriate at this juncture. This gave positive re-enforcement to the decisions that descriptive analyses be utilized.

Response Rate of Agencies (Table 5.26)

Of the agencies returning the mailed questionnaires, Employment Security in all states completed and returned all questionnaires (3 from each state, 10 states). Thus, Employment Security had 14% of the total questionnaires returned. However, two other agencies (Farmers Home Administration and Health Services) were almost equally responsive with 28 of 30, for a response rate of 94% which is a very high return rate for a mailed questionnaire or survey (Dillman, Mail and Telephone Surveys, 1978). Farmers Home Administration and Health Services each had 13% of the total questionnaires returned.

The Food Stamps agencies returned 18 of 30 questionnaires they received, which represented 60% of the total, the lowest response level, and Vocational Rehabilitation, with a 63% response rate, was second lowest.

Table 5.26. Response Rates of Agencies

Agency	Questionnaires Sent	Number Responding	Percent
Employment Security	30	30	100.0
Food Stamps	30	18	60.0
Farmer's Home Administration	30	28	94.3
Social Security	30	24	80.0
Commission on Aging	30	20	66.7
Health Services	30	28	94.3
Mental Health	30	24	80.0
Veteran's Administration	30	20	66.7
Vocational Rehabilitation	30	19	63.3

Table 5.27. Staffing of Agencies and Average Number of Full and Part-time Employees

Agency	No. Full-Time	Average No. of Full-Time	No. Part-Time	Average No. of Part-Time
Employment Security	355	11.8	48	1.6
Food Stamps	371	20.6	51	2.8
Farmer's Home Adm.	106	3.8	19	0.7
Social Security	729	30.4	50	2.1
Commission on Aging	207	10.4	120	6.0
Health Service	580	20.7	88	3.1
Mental Health	859	35.8	146	6.1
Veterans Adm.	752	37.6	11	0.6
Vocational Rehab.	1930	101.6	34	1.8

Staff by Agency (Table 5.27)

It was revealed that the average number of full-time employees by agencies showed that Vocational Rehabilitation had the greatest number of all agencies with 101.6 per agency. Following Vocational Rehabilitation and ranking second was Veterans Administration with an average of 37.6 full-time employees. Mental Health was ranked third with 35.8 and Social Security was fourth with 30.4 full-time employees per agency.

In contrast, Farmers Home Administration had the least number of full-time employees with an average of 3.8 per agency. Commission on Aging was ranked eighth with 10.4 per agency and Employment Security was seventh with an average

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of 11.8 per agency.

Analyses of the data on the average number of part-time employees reported by agencies showed that Mental Health was ranked first with an average of 6.1 part-time employees. Commission on Aging was second with an average of 6 and Health Services was third with an average of 3.1 part-time employees per agency.

Veterans Administration had the lowest average among the part-time employees at .06 per agency. Following Veterans Administration was Farmers Home Administration with an average of 0.7 part-time employees and Employment Security was ranked seventh with an average of 1.6 part-time employees per agency.

Table 5.28. Average Number of Clients Per Month by Agencies

Agency	No.	No. of Clients Per Month	Average No. of Clients Per Month	Clients/ Full-Time Employee
Employment Security	30	22,216	741	62.5
Food Stamps	18	46,120	2,562	124.3
Farmer's Home Adm.	28	6,723	240	63.4
Social Security	24	44,900	1,871	61.5
Commission on Aging	20	16,460	823	79.5
Health Services	28	34,911	1,247	60.1
Mental Health	24	17,471	728	20.2
Veterans Adm.	20	11,981	599	15.9
Vocational Rehab.	19	9,900	521	5.1

Clients Per Month by Agency (Table 5.28)

When the number of clients served by agencies per month was examined, the Food Stamps client load was the largest. Food Stamps reported 46,120 or 22% of the 210,682 clients served per month by the agencies responding. The mean number of clients was 2,562.

Social Security had the second largest client load or clients served per month with 44,900 or 21%. The mean number of clients served per month by Social Security was 1,871.

The third largest agency in this category was Health Services, which serviced 34,911 clients per month. Health Services had a mean of 1,264 clients or 17% of the total clients served by all agencies.

Farmers Home Administration served the smallest clientele of 6,723 or 3% of the total. The mean number of clients for this agency was 240.

Upon examination of the number of clients served per month divided by the number of full-time employees revealed the following ratios: Food Stamps had the largest Client/full-time employee ratio with 124 clients; Commission on Aging was second with 80; Farmers Home Administration was third with 63; Social Security was fifth with 62; Health Services was sixth with 60; Mental Health was seventh with 20; Veterans Administration was eighth with 16%; and Vocational Rehabilitation had the lowest Client/full-time employee ratio with 5%. The low ratio for Vocational Rehabilitation and Veterans Administration may be attributed to the need and qualifications required of their clientele.

Client Satisfaction Survey by Agency (Table 5.29)

Agency Directors were asked if formal client satisfaction surveys were conducted at their agencies. Of the total sample, 36% of the directors responded positively. Vocational Rehabilitation had the highest number of units conducting client satisfaction surveys (79%). By contrast, Farmers Home Administration reported only one unit conducting client satisfaction surveys. Of the remaining agencies surveyed, the percent of units conducting client satisfaction surveys ranged from 17% for Food Stamps to 54% for Mental Health.

Table 5.29. Client Satisfaction Surveys by Agencies

Agency	No.	Client Surveys Conducted	Percent
		Yes	%
Employment Security	30	14	46.7
Food Stamps	18	3	16.7
Farmer's Home Adm.	28	1	3.6
Social Security	24	5	20.8
Commission on Aging	20	8	40.0
Health Services	28	12	42.9
Mental Health	24	13	54.2
Veterans Adm.	20	4	20.0
Vocational Rehab.	19	15	78.9
Total	211	75	35.5

Most Pressing Needs by Agency (Table 5.30)

Each agency was asked to list its most pressing needs in rank order. Table 5.30 demonstrates that "staffing" was the most pressing need for six of the nine agencies. For more than 60% of the Employment Security, Food Stamps, FmHA, and Social Security county agencies responding. Staffing was the most pressing need. Vocational Rehabilitation was the only agency for which no unit indicated

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"staffing" as the most pressing need. However, 74% of the Vocational Rehabilitation units listed capital as most pressing. "Capital" was also the most pressing for 46% of Mental Health agencies. "Transportation" was most important to 40% of the Commission on Aging units and 29% of the Mental Health units.

Table 5.30. Agencies Most Pressing Needs by Agency

Agency	No.	Staff	Better Facilities	Trans-port	Capital
		%	%	%	%
Employment Security	30	66.7	13.3	3.3	0.0
Food Stamps	18	61.1	0.0	11.1	11.1
Farmer's Home Adm.	28	71.4	3.6	0.0	14.3
Social Security	24	62.5	8.3	12.5	0.0
Commission on Aging	20	15.0	5.0	40.0	30.0
Health Services	28	32.1	21.4	28.6	7.1
Mental Health	24	66.7	0.0	20.8	45.8
Veterans Adm.	20	30.0	5.0	10.0	25.0
Vocational Rehab.	19	[illegible]	5.3	15.8	73.7

Table 5.31. Ranking of Mode of Publicity by all Agencies

Mode of Publicity	1st	2nd	3rd	Total	1st, 2nd or 3rd
	N	N	N	N	%
Newspaper	56	30	16	102	48.3
Radio/TV	26	35	27	88	41.7
Brochures	21	24	36	81	38.4
Referral	22	23	26	71	33.6
Friends/Relatives	21	17	17	55	26.1
Soc. Ser. Agencies	11	16	15	42	19.9
Don't Pub.	6	8	11	25	11.8
Other	7	4	5	16	7.6
No Answer	41	54	58	153	72.6

Modes of Publicity Ranked by Agencies (Table 5.31)

Agency directors were asked to rank the sources of publicity for their agencies. As illustrated in Table 6, the newspaper ranked first, second, or third by 48% of 211 agencies, as the most frequently used mode for publicizing agencies and their services. Radio/TV ranked second, while brochures came third.

Transportation Provided by Agencies (Table 5.32)

Of the agencies surveyed two agencies provided no transportation for clients (Employment Security and Farmers Home Administration). Commission on Aging agencies had the greatest percentage (85%) which provided transportation. Vocational Rehabilitation was second with 68%. Mental Health and Food Stamps agencies were next with 63% and 61% of their agencies providing transportations. Only one of the Social Security agencies provided transportation for clients.

Table 5.32. Transportation Provided for Clients by Agencies

Agency	No.	Transportation Provided	Total
		Yes	%
Employment Security	30	0	0 0
Food Stamps	18	11	61.1
Farmer's Home Adm.	28	0	0.0
Social Security	24	1	4.2
Commission on Aging	20	17	85.0
Health Services	28	9	32.1
Mental Health	24	15	62.5
Veterans Adm.	20	6	30.0
Vocational Rehab.	19	13	68.4

Summary of Agency Directors' Questionnaires

The preliminary data analysis on major variables of the agency directors' questionnaire revealed, that of the 270 questionnaires mailed to agency directors, 217 were returned. There were 211 usable questionnaires in the data set. Employment Security or Job Service was most responsive of all agencies researched. All of their questionnaires were returned. By comparison, only 60% of the Food Stamps questionnaires were returned.

The variable, staffing of agencies, showed Vocational Rehabilitation had the greatest number of full-time employees (101.6 per unit average). Farmers Home Administration had the fewest full-time employees per unit with 3.8 average per unit. The client to full-time employee ratio revealed Food Stamps had the largest ratio (124.3 to 1), while Vocational Rehabilitation had the lowest (5.1 to 1).

For the variable, "client satisfaction" surveys conducted, only 36% of all agencies responded that they did. Vocational Rehabilitation had the greatest percent (79%) of agencies conducting client satisfaction surveys.

The newspaper was ranked as the major mode of publicity by all agencies, while radio/TV was second.

Only 34% of all agencies responded that they provide transportation for their clients. Of agencies providing transportation, Commission on Aging was first (85%), followed by Vocational Rehabilitation (68%) and Mental Health (63%).

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the major variables analyzed, Vocational Rehabilitation was consistently in the forefront with respect to intensity of services to clients.

Although these data do not lend themselves to inferential statistics, responses to specific questions indicated merit to the types of queries contained in the instrument.

Regarding agencys' most pressing needs, "staffing" supercedes "capital". This may imply that even with budgetary cuts, agencies in the rural southern region have problems securing qualified or adequate staff with the funds available. Finally, regarding publicity techniques, referral ranked fourth to the newspaper, radio/TV, and brochures. Which may indicate that there probably were loopholes in inter- and intra-agency communications (Howie and Phillips, 1981).

Further comparisons among counties within states may reveal systematic differences at the local level that are masked by the aggregation of state data found here. Individual counties in the state samples vary widely on racial composition and client loads per agency office. These differences may average out in the state samples.

6. VALUES, ATTITUDES, AND BELIEFS

Over the past three decades, the heaviest concentrations of rural families deprived of the essentials of a decent living and suffering from continuing poverty have been in the South (the White House, 1979). This persistence of poverty can be attributed to multiple causes: physical, economic, social, demographic, political. cultural, or psychological. The significance of the role of psychological forces such as values, attitudes, and beliefs in the persistence of poverty has been well expressed in a controversial, but once powerful notion, that poverty perpetuates itself due to the distinctive cultural values of the poor in capitalistic societies (Lewis, 1966; Kaplan, 1967). In recent years, alongside general economic prosperity, we have seen many revealing studies of the poor and concerted government efforts to deal with persistent poverty; but poverty persists in our society. This suggests an inherent shortcoming in our understanding of poverty and efforts to help the poor. While in more recent years the failure of poverty programs has been better understood in political terms (Valentine, 1968; Leacock, 1971; Moynahan, 1969), thus shifting the blame away from the poor, a greater understanding of the psychological profile of the people involved should still be useful.

Following Berelsen and Steiner (1967) and Rokeach (1968: ix), for the purpose of this survey, the concepts of values, attitudes, and beliefs are taken together as a functionally integrated cognitive syster. In practice, they are used interchangeably for this study of psychological profiles of respondents.

More concretely, this study is needed because a comparatively large number of rural families live with disadvantageous social and economic conditions in the South (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1978, p. 5). To overcome these disadvantages and to escape from poverty, the poor, in general, considers it important that their children get better educations and better jobs (Ireland and Besner, 1968). Thus, this survey included measures of parental expectations of education and job opportunities for their children.

In summary, the psychological profile studied here consists of two major dimensions. First, there are certain cultural value traits identified by advocates of the culture of poverty thesis as distinctive of the poor. They are low self-esteem, fatalism, powerlessness, alienation, present-time orientation, and dependence. Also included is a set of measures to observe general attitudes about work. Second, personal, educational, and career expectations by respondents for both themselves and their children are presented.

CULTURAL VALUES INSTRUMENT AND RESPONSES

The data used here to study the psychological profile were collected from the heads of households sampled in each of the 10 southern states. The respondents were asked the same questions on values, beliefs, and attitudes. The questionnaire included eight items regarding cultural or psychological value traits, seven items about attitudes towards work, three items about educational and career opportunities of children, and 14 items concerning conditions and problems closely related to work and employment opportunities. Items for value traits and attitudes toward work all conformed to a five point Likert-type scale, allowing one

of five responses: "strongly agree," "agree," "uncertain," "disagree," and "strongly disagree". The remaining items were all structured as closed questions for specific responses among fixed alternatives.

Items compiled in this instrument were selected through pretesting from several instruments contained in those books edited by Miller (1964), and Robinson, Rusk, and Head (1968).

The eight items for value traits listed below were asked of respondents during the interview with the following statement:

I am going to ask you a number of questions that deal with you and your feelings about yourself and your family. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions so be as honest as you can in each response. After I read each statement tell me whether you Strongly Agree, Agree, are Uncertain about, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree with it.

1) I am able to do things as well as other people.
2) The secret of happiness is not expecting too much out of life and being content with what comes your way.
3) It is important to make plans for one's life and not just accept what comes.
4) I wish I could have more respect for myself.
5) I certainly feel useless at times.
6) Making plans only brings unhappiness because the plans are hard to fulfill.
7) With things as they are today a person ought to think only about the present and not worry about what is going to happen tomorrow.
8) When you are in trouble only a relative can be depended upon to help you out.

About attitudes towards work, seven items were asked in the same way as the above items. The statements were as follows:

9) Work is proof of an individual's worth to himself.
10) A person should do all in his power to earn a living.
11) If I had enough money to support myself and my family, I would never work.
12) When looking for a job a person ought to find a position in a place located near his parents, even if it means losing a good opportunity elsewhere.
13) Work is something I do in order to earn some money.
14) If you have the chance to hire an assistant in your work, it is always better to hire a relative than a stranger.
15) A responsible individual is one who keeps his job.

Factor Analysis (Table 6.1)

The value traits and attitudes towards work statements were factor analyzed as shown below. State by state frequency distributions of indexes constructed for each identified factor were observed. Also responses to the remaining questionnaire statements were also analyzed and are presented here in terms of percentage distribution of frequencies for each item. The Pearson's correlations were computed to determine the significance of association between these items and the poverty index. In each table, the 10 states are listed in order of percent black households possibly to determine any potential significance of race in this study. Also, in all the tables except Table 6.20, nonresponses questionnaire items were treated as missing data and excluded from the analyses.

The above 15 items were arranged randomly in the questionnaire rather than being grouped by certain traits or orientations. Therefore, they were factor analyzed to determine their factor structure. As reported in Table 6.1, the summary of factor loadings by factor matrix using the principal factor with iterations indicated significant loadings on one factor for eight of the 15 items despite differences among the 10 states. The dominant factors identified as "low self-esteem" and "dependence" accounted for, on the average, 47% of the total variation in these items among the 10 states with a standard deviation of 6%. The items which have correlations of ±.35 or higher were considered significant loadings, and tended to cluster together. These items are identified by asterisks in Table 6.1. The remaining items failed to load on the initial factor extracted from the data primarily because of poor wording, content, or the factor analytic technique used to define the best linear combination of items.

To achieve theoretically more meaningful factor loadings, the varimax rotation procedure

Table 6.1. Factor Loadings of Items Related to Values, Attitudes, and Beliefs

Variables	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
Self-Esteem										
I am able to do things as well as other people (1)	.42	.28	.35	.29	.26	.32	.40	.26	.38	.48
I wish I could have more respect for myself (4)*	.50	.63	.36	.40	.45	.55	.46	.23	.31	.48
I certainly feel useless at times (5)*	.61	.43	.43	.53	.57	.43	.40	.33	.39	.53
When you are in trouble only a relative can be depended upon to help you out (8)*	.57	.44	.60	.58	.48	.59	.62	.44	.53	.35
Fatalism										
The secret of happiness is not expecting too much out of life and being content with what comes your way (2)	.20	.32	.33	.19	.21	.22	.32	.30	.29	.46
It is important to make plans for one's life and not just accept what comes (3)	.34	.16	.24	.36	.10	.37	.29	.10	.26	.62
Present-time Orientation										
With things as they are today a person ought to think only about the present and not worry about what is going to happen tommorrow (7)*	.57	.62	.68	.53	.56	.52	.70	.46	.49	.62
Making plans only brings unhappiness because the plans are hard to fulfill (6)*	.54	.65	.66	.66	.65	.52	.70	.45	.68	.79
Work as a moral duty										
Work is proof of an individual's worth to himself (9)	.14	.12	.03	.35	.08	.30	-.12	-.15	.02	.45
A person should do all in his power to earn a living (10)	.16	.24	.13	.08	.22	.31	.10	.22	.26	.26
A responsible individual is one who keeps his job (15)	-.26	-.09	-.21	-.10	-.13	.25	-.24	-.15	.14	.32
Work as burdensome										
If I had enough money to support myself and my family, I would never work (11)	.39	.29	.41	.44	.35	.16	.25	.27	.29	.09
Work is something I do in order to earn some money (13)	.37	.45	.26	.20	.16	-.01	.35	.28	.25	.01
Dependency in relation to work										
When looking for a job a person ought to find a position in a place located near his parents, even if it means losing a good opportunity elsewhere. (12)*	.63	.57	.44	.57	.43	.29	.63	.77	.57	.20
If you have the chance to hire an assistant in your work, it is always better to hire a relative than a stranger (14)*	.60	.52	.53	.61	.38	.34	.65	.58	.63	.26
% of Variance Explained	55.8	47.5	52.6	53.8	45.8	39.5	47.6	39.3	45.6	46.6

*Items that correlated strongly with the first principal factor with iterations for the majority of the states.

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was utilized. This procedure yielded six different factors. Factor 1 (items 1, 4, 5, and 8) seems to reflect a trait of self-esteem. Factor 2 (items 2 and 3) appears to characterize a trait of fatalism. Factor 3 (items 6 and 7) is concerned with present-time orientation. Factor 4 (items 9, 10, and 15) seems to represent a view that work is a duty, a moral obligation, and a source of self-respect. Factor 5 (items 11 and 13) seems to indicate a view that work is a burdensome and unpleasant way of life. Factor 6 (items 12 and 14) appears to reflect a trait of dependence on family and relatives in connection with work.

To analyze these six traits, responses to all 15 items were converted into the form of a five point scale. However, since some items were worded positively and others were worded negatively, all the responses were scored in a consistent way so that agreement with one item and disagreement with another could indicate the same direction of traits, as was also done for the scores used in the two factor analyses above. Thus the scale gives five points to each firmly positive response, four to each positive response, three to each uncertain response, two to each negative response, and one to each firmly negative response. Then each respondent was assigned six mean scores, based on their responses to the respective 15 items representing the six different traits. This procedure provides summary statistics for each trait which accounts for a three way distribution of the responses. Average mean scores greater than 3.4 indicate positive direction of a trait or orientation, whereas average mean scores smaller than 2.6 indicate negative direction. In addition, average mean scores between 2.6 and 3.4 are considered here as neutral or uncertain. These three way distributions of average mean scores are presented here in terms of percentage distribution of frequencies for the purposes of measurement, comparison and discussion.

Levels of Value Traits (Table 6.2)

Several studies of psychological and personality characteristics of the poor indicate that low self-esteem, fatalism, and present-time orientation are among several distinctive traits dominant among the poor. Lewis (1966, 23) concludes "the poor has a strong feeling of fatalism, helplessness, dependence and inferiority...., a strong present-time orientation with relatively little disposition to defer gratification and plan for the future...." According to Ireland and Besner (1968: 7-8), "fatalism, present-time orientation, authoritarianism, and concreteness are major value themes prevalent among the poor." Kaplan (1967: 150-152) sheds more light on psychological conditions of the poor, and argues "most of the poor do not feel hope, rutility or even despair with any intensity....there is little feeling of accomplishment, little feeling of confidence, or belonging, or fulfillment...."

Self-esteem: The concept of self-esteem here means that the individual respects himself, considers himself worthy, but recognizes his limitations and expects to grow and improve (Rosenberg, 1965). Conversely, low self-esteem can be characterized in terms of inferiority, helplessness, withdrawal, or retardation. According to Singer (1964), "low self-esteem is the central dimension in the syndrome of depression." To measure self-esteem on positive, middle, and low dimensions, the concept is here operationalized with four items clustered together by factor analysis.

A close examination of the self-esteem column in Table 6.2 reveals that more than a half of the rural population in all the states but Mississippi and Kentucky have very positive self-esteem. The sizes of the respondents having such high self-respect ranged from 63% in Arkansas to 50% in Florida, whereas in Kentucky and Mississippi the percents were only 43 and 40, respectively. Conversely, low self-esteem is expressed by less than a quarter of the respondents in all states but Mississippi and Kentucky. The smallest frequency of low self-esteem were observed in Virginia with nine percent while Mississippi and Kentucky reached 27% each. Throughout the South, a relatively greater number of the rural population appeared to respect themselves, consider themselves worthy and useful, and believed that they were as able as others in doing things.

Fatalism: A trait of fatalism is widely assumed as another notable characteristic of the poor. Fatalism is defined here as a resignation to an uncontrolled future in the face of which one feels helpless, because he believes all events are predetermined. Therefore, people with a fatalistic view of the world tend to see no

Table 6.2. Levels of Self-Esteem, Fatalism, and Present-time Orientation

State	Self-Esteem Mean Score 0.0-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4+	Total	Fatalism Mean Score 0.0-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4+	Total	Present-time Orientation Mean Score 0.0-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4+	Total
	%	%	%	(N)	%	%	%	(N)	%	%	%	(N)
SC	18.3	25.6	56.1	(312)	10.6	39.1	50.3	(312)	31.1	24.0	44.9	(312)
NC	22.1	24.5	53.4	(249)	15.3	57.4	27.3	(249)	30.9	23.3	45.8	(249)
AL	24.0	23.6	52.4	(254)	12.6	51.6	35.8	(254)	31.5	24.4	44.1	(254)
MS	27.0	32.7	40.3	(248)	19.8	48.0	32.3	(248)	42.3	27.4	30.2	(248)
AR	11.0	25.9	63.1	(255)	20.4	45.1	34.5	(255)	32.9	25.5	41.6	(255)
GA	18.1	26.6	55.2	(248)	15.3	43.5	41.1	(248)	26.6	27.8	45.6	(248)
FL	20.0	30.0	50.0	(240)	21.3	41.7	37.1	(240)	42.9	16.7	40.4	(240)
VA	8.9	33.6	57.5	(259)	16.6	53.3	30.1	(259)	37.1	20.1	42.9	(259)
TN	14.9	32.3	52.8	(248)	13.7	58.1	28.2	(248)	28.6	22.2	49.2	(248)
KY	27.0	30.0	43.0	(263)	28.1	47.9	24.0	(263)	33.3	18.6	47.5	(263)
Average	19.1	28.5	52.4		17.4	48.6	34.1		33.7	23.0	43.2	

Table 6.3. Attitudes Towards Work in Rural South

State	Work as a Duty Mean Score 0.0-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4+	Total	Work as a Burdensome Way of Life Mean Score 0.0-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4+	Total	Dependency in Relation to Working Mean Score 0.0-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4+	Total
	%	%	%	(N)	%	%	%	(N)	%	%	%	(N)
SC	.3	18.9	80.8	(312)	23.7	35.6	40.7	(312)	6.1	7.4	86.5	(312)
NC	4.0	17.3	78.7	(249)	20.9	43.8	35.3	(249)	8.8	8.8	82.3	(249)
AL	1.2	17.3	81.5	(254)	24.0	44.1	31.9	(254)	16.1	18.5	65.4	(254)
MS	1.2	11.3	87.5	(248)	26.2	46.4	27.4	(248)	18.1	12.5	69.4	(248)
AR	1.6	17.6	80.8	(255)	21.6	46.7	31.8	(255)	11.8	17.6	70.6	(255)
GA	1.2	11.3	87.5	(248)	33.9	38.7	27.4	(248)	9.7	14.5	75.8	(248)
FL	3.8	13.3	82.9	(240)	20.0	44.6	35.4	(240)	18.8	9.6	71.7	(240)
VA	.4	13.1	86.5	(259)	31.3	40.2	28.6	(259)	6.6	9.3	84.2	(259)
TN	1.2	13.3	85.5	(248)	16.1	44.0	39.9	(248)	10.5	8.1	81.5	(248)
KY	2.3	9.1	88.6	(263)	31.2	46.8	22.1	(263)	9.9	22.1	68.1	(263)
Average %	1.7	14.3	84.0		24.9	43.1	32.1		11.6	12.9	75.6	

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point in planning and to accept whatever happens to them. The opposite of the fatalistic outlook is the value trait of control which characterizes a person's confidence that he can exert influence over his future, and that he can make things happen as he planned.

As reported in Table 6.2, a considerably large number of the rural people in all the states except South Carolina, fell into the middle range of the fatalism scale, ranging from 58% in Tennessee to 42% in Florida. An interesting finding is that South Carolina appeared to be the only state in which half of the respondents (50%) felt that they can exert influence over events in their lives, while in other southern states only about one-third of the respondents shared such a strong confidence in themselves, on the average. The number of people with the value of control was considerably larger than the number of people with the fatalistic outlook in every state but Kentucky. In Kentucky alone, people with the fatalistic outlook (28%) outnumbered people with the value of control (24%), and the 28% was also the largest among the 10 southern states. In the other nine states, the percentages of the respondents with the fatalistic view ranged from 21% in Florida to 11% in South Carolina.

Present-time Orientation: Present-time orientation is also considered by many as another outstanding cultural trait shared by the poor. This orientation has been known as just opposite to a value of the middle-class society which emphasizes "deferred gratification" -- saving income and postponing pleasures today in order to reap greater benefits tomorrow. In this regard, the present-time orientation can be conceptualized as a manifestation of "instant gratification" -- spending one's money and enjoying what one has while it lasts. Furthermore, the orientation refers to one's tendency to defer plans for the future and think only about the present.

As Table 6.2 indicates, in every state except Mississippi more than 40% of the rural people showed the value of future planning for their life. On the other hand, however, it was interesting to note that a somewhat sizeable number of people in all states were strongly oriented to a life style emphasizing the present. In fact, more than 30% shared the present-time orientation in all the states but Georgia (27%) and Tennessee (29%). More interesting, in Mississippi and Florida there were more present-time oriented people than future oriented people.

Table 6.2 also reveals that among the negative aspects of the three value traits discussed here, the present-time orientation was the most widely shared value among people in the rural South than the other two in a negative sense. Given the fact that in the rural South there are a considerable number of people who do not have money to save and who have to worry about daily subsistence, it seems understandable to see such a strong pattern of present-time orientation among rural people. Furthermore, a cursory examination of Table 6.2 shows no distinctive patterns of racial and geographical correlations with cultural value traits of self-esteem, fatalism, and present-time orientation in the rural South.

Attitudes towards Work (Table 6.3)

In the American tradition, work has been largely viewed as a moral duty and a fundamental basis of social and economic life. This tradition was deeply rooted in the ideas of puritanism. Puritanism, Max Weber (1958) argued, had exalted the meaning of work from a painful necessity to a moral duty, making it a valued activity and a source of self-respect. In our society, therefore, the emphasis has been on the virtues of a good, hard day's work, not just as a means of supporting life but also a rewarding experience for the individual in terms of one's dignity and self-esteem.

In recent years, however, the old Protestant work ethic on labor, seems to be fading in the face of an increasing and persistent feeling of alienation many workers feel in their working lives. In this respect, the Work in America report (1973, pp. xv, xvii) stated: "Significant numbers of American workers are dissatisfied with the quality of their working lives. Dull, repetitive, seemingly meaningless tasks, offering little challenge or autonomy, are causing discontent among workers at all occupational levels." Particularly, people in low-status jobs are likely to feel that their work is not satisfying, but, rather, is degrading and dehumanizing, so that they feel a sense of alienation and frustration from an important part of their lives.

Furthermore, in view of the notion that most of the poor are antagonistic toward the larger culture's values (Lewis, 1966), it may

also be safe to assume that many socially and economically disadvantaged individuals are more likely to consider work as a painful necessity to stay alive than as a moral duty conceptualized in the Protestant work ethic.

Work as a Moral Duty: Of the three sets of general attitudes towards work generated by factor analysis, the first set includes three items representing a view that work is a moral duty. As reported in Table 6.3, more than 80% of the respondents in every state except North Carolina seemed to value the old Protestant work ethic, ranging from 89% in Kentucky to 81% in South Carolina and in Arkansas as well. Slightly less than 80% of the sample shared the view in North Carolina (79%).

Work as a Burdensome Way of Life: When they were asked if work means no more than a tool of earning money, approximately one quarter of the rural population in the South, on the average, was likely to accept a view of work as a painful necessity for living or as an unpleasant way of life. As shown in Table 6.3, the proportions of the respondents having such a negative view, however, vary extensively from state to state, ranging from 34% in Georgia to 16% in Tennessee. Of the 10 states it is important to note that Tennessee was the only state which had less than 20% of the people with such a negative view.

Dependency in Relation to Work: The third set of general attitudes towards work reflects dependent feelings towards family and relatives in connection with employment opportunity and hiring employees. As shown in Table 6.3, the percentages of mean scores of 3.4 or higher, indicating a sense of independence or autonomy were much larger than the percentages of mean scores of 2.6 or less which represent a feeling of dependency. The range of independence from their parents or family, when accepting employment or from their relatives when hiring someone to help their work, ranged from 87% in South Carolina to 65% in Alabama. On the other hand, dependent feelings ranged from 19% in Florida to 6% in South Carolina. Florida, Mississippi, and Alabama appeared to have had almost twice as many people with dependent feelings as the other states.

Finally, as anticipated, it was observed in Table 6.3 that no distinctive patterns of racial and geographical influence appeared in the rural South in relation to the general attitudes towards work.

CAREER OPPORTUNITIES FOR CHILDREN AND ADULTS

Next, educational and employment opportunities of children were examined. While present-time orientation tended to dominate adult values in this study, it is widely assumed that economically underprivileged families tend to emphasize values of education and better jobs for their children as means of improving their standard of living. Therefore, it is interesting to learn about their views or feelings about educational or employment opportunities for their children in their community.

Parents' Expectations for Children's Educational Attainment (Table 6.4)

Respondents were asked about how much schooling they think most of their children will complete. Table 6.4 shows an interesting pattern of the respondents' realistic estimates of their children's educational achievement throughout the rural South with few minor exceptions. In almost all states, the most frequent responses were, in declining order, "high school diploma," "college degree," "some college," "not finish high school," and "graduate or professional". Noticeable exceptions from this general pattern appeared in Arkansas and Kentucky: the former had "college degree," "high school diploma," "some college," "graduate or professional," and "not finish high school," whereas the latter had "high school diploma," "some college," "not finish high school," "college degree," and "graduate or professional" in descending order. As reported in Table 6.4, the percentages of people only expecting their children to complete high school ranged from the highest of 58% in Kentucky to the lowest of 29% in Arkansas, with an average of 45% among all the 10 southern states. On the other hand, the proportions of the respondents expecting their children to complete college ranged from 44% in Arkansas to 12% in Kentucky, with an average of 26% throughout the rural South. In contrast, the percentages of "some high school" responses only ranged from 2% each for Virginia and Alabama to 9% in South Carolina with exceptions for Mississippi and Kentucky where the percentage was 14% and 13%, respectively.

Table 6.4. Percentage Distribution of Respondents' Expectation of Educational Achievement by their Children

States	Not Finish High School	High School Diploma	Some College	College Degree	Graduate Or Professional	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	8.8	43.6	18.6	22.5	6.4	100.0	204
North Carolina	8.7	46.5	14.0	25.0	5.8	100.0	172
Alabama	1.9	48.1	23.1	23.1	3.8	100.0	156
Mississippi	14.4	48.5	15.2	21.2	0.8	100.0	132
Arkansas	5.3	29.2	13.3	44.2	8.0	100.0	113
Georgia	5.0	43.9	22.3	24.5	4.3	100.0	139
Florida	4.3	46.8	24.5	20.1	4.3	100.0	139
Virginia	1.9	39.4	19.4	32.5	6.9	100.0	160
Tennessee	7.0	42.7	14.6	29.9	5.7	100.0	157
Kentucky	13.0	57.8	15.5	12.4	1.2	100.0	161
Average %	7.0	44.7	18.1	25.5	4.7		

Parents' Perceptions of Their Children's Future in Community (Table 6.5)

Respondents were asked whether they advise their children to leave their community in order to be successful. In each of the 10 states, as reported in Table 6.5, more than 13% of the parents definitely wanted their children to leave their community. Comparing all the states, the most frequent responses of "yes, to a great extent" were in Arkansas (30%), Georgia (23%), Kentucky (22%), and in the remaining states, ranged from 20% to 13%. In contrast, parents in Mississippi (42%), South Carolina and North Carolina (37% each), Alabama (34%), and Virginia (28%) were much more prone than the other states to say they were definitely not advising their children to leave their communities for a successful career.

Table 6.5. Parents' Perception of the Future of their Children in the Community

States	Great Extent	Somewhat	Unsure	Not Very Much	Definitely Not	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	13.4	18.7	15.7	14.9	37.3	100.0	268
North Carolina	16.4	18.3	7.3	21.0	37.0	100.0	219
Alabama	16.6	12.6	3.1	33.6	34.1	100.0	223
Mississippi	19.6	13.6	4.2	20.6	42.1	100.0	214
Arkansas	30.2	18.0	3.4	27.3	21.0	100.0	205
Georgia	22.7	26.1	13.5	24.2	13.5	100.0	207
Florida	19.9	26.4	7.9	24.5	21.3	100.0	216
Virginia	14.3	26.3	10.6	20.7	28.1	100.0	217
Tennessee	15.9	17.3	7.0	36.9	22.9	100.0	214
Kentucky	21.5	43.9	6.6	15.8	12.3	100.0	228
Average %	19.1	22.1	7.9	24.0	27.0		

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Table 6.6. Parents' Estimate of Job Opportunities for Children in the Community

States	Great Extent	Somewhat	Unsure	Not Very Much	Definitely Not	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	0.7	6.9	6.3	13.5	72.7	100.0	304
North Carolina	3.3	11.8	2.9	34.3	47.8	100.0	245
Alabama	5.2	4.8	2.8	24.0	63.2	100.0	250
Mississippi	0.8	9.4	7.3	23.3	59.2	100.0	245
Arkansas	5.6	5.6	3.2	10.8	74.7	100.0	249
Georgia	1.3	10.5	7.5	28.0	52.7	100.0	239
Florida	2.1	5.5	4.2	30.0	58.2	100.0	237
Virginia	2.8	3.1	9.1	27.6	57.5	100.0	254
Tennessee	1.2	14.8	3.3	45.9	34.8	100.0	244
Kentucky	0.4	3.9	1.6	22.0	72.2	100.0	255
Average %	2.3	7.6	4.8	25.9	59.3		

Table 6.7. Interest in Training for a Better Job (Head and Spouse)

States	Yes		No		Total			
	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household		Spouse	
	%	%	%	%	%	N	%	N
South Carolina	39.3	25.6	60.7	34.3	100.0	(295)	100.0	(254)
North Carolina	42.5	34.5	57.5	43.5	100.0	(200)	100.0	(177)
Alabama	44.4	30.8	55.6	29.4	100.0	(241)	100.0	(201)
Mississippi	40.0	25.2	60.0	36.3	100.0	(240)	100.0	(234)
Arkansas	29.0	24.3	71.0	42.6	100.0	(252)	100.0	(251)
Georgia	35.2	23.2	64.8	41.2	100.0	(236)	100.0	(233)
Florida	33.8	20.2	66.2	38.8	100.0	(234)	100.0	(183)
Virginia	32.9	28.6	67.1	45.0	100.0	(243)	100.0	(238)
Tennessee	35.7	29.6	64.3	48.8	100.0	(241)	100.0	(213)
Kentucky	22.4	15.9	77.6	75.0	100.0	(254)	100.0	(220)
Average %	35.5	25.8	64.5	43.5				

Table 6.8. Job Types Interested in Training For (Head and Spouse)

States	Professional Technical & Kindred Worker		Manager or Administrator		Sales Worker		Total			
	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household		Spouse	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N	%	N
South Carolina	82.9	82.8	14.3	10.3	2.9	6.9	100.0	(35)	100.0	(29)
North Carolina	82.9	83.3	12.2	13.9	4.9	2.8	100.0	(41)	100.0	(36)
Alabama	77.4	82.1	20.8	12.8	1.9	5.1	100.0	(53)	100.0	(39)
Mississippi	92.5	75.9	5.0	17.2	2.5	6.9	100.0	(40)	100.0	(29)
Arkansas	90.9	85.7	4.5	14.3	4.5	.0	100.0	(44)	100.0	(35)
Georgia	78.0	65.7	20.0	17.1	2.0	17.1	100.0	(50)	100.0	(35)
Florida	78.6	69.2	16.7	.0	4.8	30.8	100.0	(42)	100.0	(13)
Virginia	79.2	82.1	17.0	15.4	3.8	2.6	100.0	(53)	100.0	(39)
Tennessee	77.6	87.1	16.3	6.5	6.1	6.5	100.0	(49)	100.0	(31)
Kentucky	75.9	71.4	13.8	14.3	10.3	14.3	100.0	(29)	100.0	(14)
Average %	81.6	78.5	14.1	12.2	4.4	9.3				

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Parents' Estimates of Job Opportunities for Children in Community (Table 6.6)

Respondents were asked whether there were enough jobs for the young people in their community. Generally, the responses were extremely negative in each of the 10 states as revealed in Table 6.6. When the responses of "definitely not" and "not very much" were collapsed, it appeared that in every state more than 80% of the respondents believed there were not enough jobs for the young people in their communities. For all states except Tennessee (35%) and North Carolina (48%), more than a majority of the respondents answered the question with the "no, definitely not" response. The highest frequencies of this response were in Arkansas (75%), South Carolina (73%), Kentucky (72%), and Alabama (63%). On the other hand, no states had more than 6% of the respondents reporting that there were enough jobs in their communities to a great extent. Next respondent perspectives on their job mobility was observed.

Interest in Training for Better Job (Table 6.7)

Respondents and their spouses were asked whether they were interested in training for a new or better job. The percentages of positive responses were higher among heads of households than their spouses in every state. The positive responses ranged among the heads of households from 44% in Alabama to 22% in Kentucky, whereas among the spouses, from 35% in North Carolina to 16% in Kentucky. Interestingly, Kentucky had the smallest number of heads of households as well as their spouses interested in training for a new or better job when compared with those of the other states.

Types of Jobs Interested in Training for (Table 6.8)

Only the respondents and spouses who expressed interest in "training for a better job" were asked to name specifically a kind of job for which they would like to be trained. A relatively small number of households responded. Therefore, caution should be used when interpreting the distributions by types of job for which they would like to be trained. More than three-quarters of heads of households in every state mentioned professional, technical, or kindred jobs, while more than three-quarters of spouses indicated the same type of jobs except households for Kentucky (71%), Florida (69%), and Georgia (66%). In general, the frequencies of occupational types mentioned by heads and spouses were in declining order: "professional, technical or kindred worker," "manager or administrator," and "sales worker".

Distance Willing to Travel for a Job (Table 6.9)

Respondents and their spouses were also asked about how far they were willing to travel from their home to the job, if employment for which they qualify was not available in their

Table 6.9. Maximum Distance Willing to Travel for the Job (Head and Spouse)

States	Less Than 19 Miles		20-39 Miles		40-up Miles		Total			
	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household	Spouse	Head Household		Spouse	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N	%	N
South Carolina	44.0	53.4	45.7		10.4	2.5	100	(232)	100	(120)
North Carolina	44.1	52.2	45.3		10.6	3.5	100	(170)	100	(117)
Alabama	42.4	47.4	23.4	33.1	34.1	19.5	100	(205)	100	(118)
Mississippi	56.8	54.5	21.4	26.3	21.9	19.2	100	(169)	100	(99)
Arkansas	41.3	44.0	52.2	49.5	6.5	6.3	100	(213)	100	(127)
Georgia	47.4	54.5	35.1	29.7	17.5	15.8	100	(171)	100	(101)
Florida	32.1	34.8	35.1	38.2	32.8	27.0	100	(171)	100	(89)
Virginia	38.6	51.1	34.4	33.3	26.9	15.6	100	(145)	100	(96)
Tennessee	47.8	48.7	30.2	31.1	22.1	20.1	100	(199)	100	(119)
Kentucky	55.7	54.3	31.9	32.6	12.5	13.1	100	(169)	100	(92)
Average %	45.0	49.5	35.5	36.3	19.5	14.3				

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Table 6.10. Preference of Child Care While Working

States	Grandparent	Others	Day-Care	Uncertain	Neither Should	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	23.0	45.9	17.6	2.7	10.8	100.0	74
North Carolina	29.3	26.7	5.3	6.7	32.0	100.0	75
Alabama	20.8	41.6	6.5	6.5	24.7	100.0	77
Mississippi	27.0	27.0	12.7	6.3	27.0	100.0	63
Arkansas	29.2	36.9	3.1	.0	30.8	100.0	65
Georgia	33.3	20.8	16.7	6.3	22.9	100.0	48
Florida	23.3	26.7	25.6	1.2	23.3	100.0	86
Virginia	29.3	15.5	.0	8.6	46.6	100.0	58
Tennessee	26.2	33.3	14.3	2.4	23.8	100.0	84
Kentucky	24.1	43.4	1.2	9.6	21.7	100.0	83
Average %	26.6	31.8	10.3	5.3	26.4		

Table 6.11. Opinion on Responsible Party for Providing Jobs for People

States	Government & Private Business	Only Government	Only Private Business	Uncertain	Neither	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	71.9	6.5	4.5	15.2	1.9	100.0	310
North Carolina	65.7	9.9	6.2	15.7	2.5	100.0	242
Alabama	63.9	9.2	10.0	7.6	9.2	100.0	249
Mississippi	68.1	12.1	9.7	9.7	0.4	100.0	248
Arkansas	55.5	17.7	11.8	9.1	5.9	100.0	254
Georgia	69.4	2.8	7.7	12.1	8.1	100.0	248
Florida	68.2	1.3	19.9	4.7	5.9	100.0	236
Virginia	55.4	9.6	11.2	18.3	5.6	100.0	251
Tennessee	70.0	5.3	13.8	5.7	5.3	100.0	247
Kentucky	54.7	5.9	8.3	21.3	9.8	100.0	254
Average %	64.3	8.0	10.3	11.9	5.5		

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immediate area. As Table 6.9 shows, "less than 19 miles" responses ranged from 57% in Mississippi to 32% in Florida among the heads of households, and from 55% in Mississippi and Georgia to 35% in Florida among the spouses. Whereas, "20-39 miles" responses ranged from 52% in Arkansas to 21% in Mississippi among the heads of households, and from 50% in Arkansas to 26% in Mississippi among the spouses. In general, "40-up miles" were the least frequent responses in all states except in Alabama and Mississippi where the "40-up miles" responses were more frequent than the "20-30 miles" responses. Finally, it is interesting to point out that the differences between the heads and the spouses were almost unnoticeable, as shown in Table 6.9, even though the spouses were somewhat more prone to prefer shorter distances to travel than the heads of households.

Preference of Child Care while Working (Table 6.10)

Respondents were asked how their children, if any, were cared for if they were employed. On average, more than one-quarter of the respondents throughout the rural South expressed their preference for grandparents as babysitters while they were working away from home. An almost equally large number of the respondents mentioned "others" as their choice for babysitting their children as reported in Table 6.10. "Day care" was the least frequent response in all states except in Florida where this response (26%) was more frequent than "grandparent" and "neither should" responses (23% each), but less frequent than "others" response (27%).

Responsible Party for Providing Jobs (Table 6.11)

Respondents were asked whether the government or private business should be responsible for providing jobs for people. More than half of the respondents in each state felt that both the government and private business should be responsible for providing jobs. The frequency distributions of this response varied from state to state, ranging from 72% in South Carolina to 55% in Virginia. On the other hand, a relatively small number of the respondents felt that government or only private business was responsible for providing jobs. In the "only government" response, a range from 18% in Arkansas to 1% in Florida was observed. Whereas, for the "only private business" response, the range was from 20% in Florida to 5% in South Carolina. Some people felt neither government nor private business was responsible for providing jobs, ranging from 10% in Kentucky to 0.4% in Mississippi.

Next, problems in securing employment in the community were explored. Respondents were asked to evaluate the extent of the following problems:

1) Discrimination by age
2) Discrimination by race
3) Discrimination by sex
4) Limited job opportunities
5) Lack of transportation
6) Not enough training or education to get a good job
7) Knowing where to look for a job
8) Knowing the right people

They were asked to tell whether they thought each of the problems was a "serious problem," "somewhat of a problem," or "not a problem" in securing employment in their community.

Discrimination by Age (Table 6.12)

In general, age was not perceived by many as a serious problem in securing employment. The percentage distributions of "serious problem" response ranged from a high of 23% in Alabama to a low of 6% in Arkansas, with an average of 15% throughout the rural southern states. However, the percentage of "somewhat of a problem" response was more than double those of "serious problem" response in every state except Alabama. More than half of the respondents in Arkansas and Mississippi felt that age was "not a problem" in securing employment.

Table 6.12. Opinion on Discrimination by Age in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	18.1	49.8	32.1	100.0	299
North Carolina	16.3	38.3	45.4	100.0	240
Alabama	23.4	29.8	46.8	100.0	248
Mississippi	14.1	29.1	56.8	100.0	234
Arkansas	6.3	29.9	63.8	100.0	254
Georgia	15.5	41.2	43.3	100.0	245
Florida	15.3	40.0	44.7	100.0	235
Virginia	16.6	34.4	49.0	100.0	253
Tennessee	16.4	46.3	37.3	100.0	244
Kentucky	11.3	43.0	45.7	100.0	256
Average %	15.3	38.2	46.5		

Discrimination by Race (Table 6.13)

Except in South Carolina (28%), Tennessee (45%) and Alabama (47%), more than half of the respondents felt that race was not a problem in securing a job. Conversely, "serious problem" responses ranged from a low of 4% in Kentucky where almost all respondents were white to a high of 27% in Alabama. When "serious problem" and "somewhat of a problem" were collapsed, more than 70% of the respondents in South Carolina, where 65% of the respondents were black, felt that race was a problem in securing employment in their community.

Table 6.13. Opinion on Discrimination by Race in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	26.5	45.6	27.9	100.0	298
North Carolina	15.4	34.2	50.4	100.0	240
Alabama	26.7	25.9	47.4	100.0	247
Mississippi	14.8	19.9	65.3	100.0	236
Arkansas	5.9	27.6	66.5	100.0	254
Georgia	17.1	32.7	50.2	100.0	245
Florida	12.2	37.1	50.7	100.0	229
Virginia	23.1	25.9	51.0	100.0	255
Tennessee	19.9	35.4	44.7	100.0	246
Kentucky	3.9	37.9	58.2	100.0	256
Average %	16.6	32.2	51.2		

Discrimination by Sex (Table 6.14)

Like the percentage distributions of the "race" responses, more than a half of the respondents felt that sex was no problem in securing employment except in South Carolina (30%) and Tennessee (48%). The two highest percentages of "no problem" response were reported in Arkansas (78%) and Mississippi (70%). In contrast, the highest percentage of "serious problem" response was observed in Alabama (21%). It was noted that Alabama had the highest percentages of "serious problem" responses among all states, not only to the sex discrimination issue, but also to racial and age discrimination issues.

On the other hand, "serious problem" responses were 3% in Kentucky, 5% in Arkansas, 9% in Florida, 10% in Mississippi, and from 12% to 21% in the remaining states. Sex was also perceived as "somewhat of a problem" with a range of 17% in Arkansas to 54% in South Carolina. When "serious problem" and "somewhat of a problem" responses were combined, South Carolina the highest percentage (70%) of the respondents among all states who considered sex a problem in getting a job in their community. As reported earlier, South Carolina had exhibited the highest percentages for discrimination by race and age when the two categories were combined.

Table 6.14. Opinion on Discrimination by Sex in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	15.4	54.2	30.4	100.0	299
North Carolina	11.7	37.9	50.4	100.0	240
Alabama	21.0	27.0	52.0	100.0	248
Mississippi	9.7	19.9	70.3	100.0	236
Arkansas	4.7	17.3	78.0	100.0	254
Georgia	13.5	31.4	55.1	100.0	245
Florida	9.4	37.8	52.8	100.0	233
Virginia	15.0	28.9	56.1	100.0	253
Tennessee	12.6	39.4	48.0	100.0	246
Kentucky	3.1	37.5	59.4	100.0	256
Average	11.6	33.1	55.3		

Table 6.15. Limited Job Opportunities in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	58.3	33.3	8.3	100.0	300
North Carolina	35.7	49.0	15.4	100.0	241
Alabama	66.1	15.7	18.1	100.0	248
Mississippi	43.0	45.1	11.9	100.0	235
Arkansas	51.4	34.8	13.8	100.0	253
Georgia	46.3	37.4	16.3	100.0	246
Florida	45.5	38.5	16.0	100.0	231
Virginia	49.8	38.7	11.5	100.0	253
Tennessee	57.1	33.1	9.8	100.0	245
Kentucky	78.5	18.4	3.1	100.0	256
Average %	53.2	34.4	12.4		

Limited Job Opportunities (Table 6.15)

Limited job opportunities was perceived as the most serious problem here in terms of securing employment. "Serious problem" responses were most frequent in all states except North Carolina and Mississippi where "somewhat of a problem" responses slightly outnumbered "serious problem" responses. The responses of "serious problem" ranged from 79% in Kentucky to 36% in North Carolina, with an average of 53% throughout the ten rural southern states. In contrast, a relatively small number of the respondents in

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of the respondents in each of the 10 states said that limited job opportunities was not a problem at all, ranging from 18% in Alabama to 3% in Kentucky.

Lack of Transportation (Table 6.16)

As expected, lack of transportation also appeared to be a serious problem to a large number of the respondents. In fact, the lack of transportation was either a "serious problem" or "somewhat of a problem" to more than a half of the respondents in all states except in North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee. The percentage distributions of "serious problem" responses ranged from a high of 34% in South Carolina to a low of 12% in Tennessee. When "serious problem" and "somewhat of a problem" responses were collapsed, more than a half of the respondents had a problem of transportation in securing employment in all states except in Arkansas (47%), North Carolina (43%), and Tennessee (43%).

Table 6.16. Lack of Transportation in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	34.3	37.7	28.0	100.0	300
North Carolina	13.0	29.8	57.1	100.0	238
Alabama	26.1	24.5	49.4	100.0	249
Mississippi	16.7	33.5	49.8	100.0	239
Arkansas	17.8	32.8	53.4	100.0	253
Georgia	19.7	34.8	45.5	100.0	244
Florida	16.3	38.6	45.1	100.0	233
Virginia	26.3	25.1	48.6	100.0	255
Tennessee	11.6	31.0	57.4	100.0	242
Kentucky	12.6	38.6	48.8	100.0	254
Average %	19.0	32.6	48.3		

Lack of Training or Education (Table 6.17)

Lack of training or education was also viewed by many people in the rural South as another serious problem in securing employment in their community. More than three-fourth of the respondents in all states except Mississippi and Virginia selected lack of training or education as either a "serious problem" or "somewhat of a problem" in finding a job. The lack of training or education was most frequently mentioned as a serious problem in Kentucky (50%), South Carolina (48%), Alabama (47%), Tennessee (40%), and in the remaining states with a range of 31% to 23%. In contrast, the frequencies of "no problem" response ranged from 31% in Virginia to 10% in Kentucky.

Table 6.17. Lack of Training or Education in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	47.8	38.1	14.0	100.0	299
North Carolina	27.2	50.6	22.2	100.0	239
Alabama	47.4	28.5	24.1	100.0	249
Mississippi	28.2	45.7	26.1	100.0	234
Arkansas	23.2	52.8	24.0	100.0	254
Georgia	30.9	44.4	24.7	100.0	243
Florida	24.9	54.1	21.0	100.0	229
Virginia	23.2	46.1	30.7	100.0	254
Tennessee	40.2	41.1	18.7	100.0	246
Kentucky	50.2	40.0	9.8	100.0	255
Average %	34.3	44.1	21.5		

Lack of Job Information (Table 6.18)

The most frequently mentioned responses in almost all states to "lack of job information" as a problem in securing employment were in decreasing order: "somewhat of a problem," "no problem," and "serious problem". "Somewhat of a problem" responses ranged from 58% in Kentucky to 31% in Alabama, whereas "serious problem" responses ranged from a high of 38% in Alabama to a low of 12% in Florida.

Table 6.18. Lack of Job Information in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	35.4	52.2	12.5	100.0	297
North Carolina	13.6	48.8	37.6	100.0	242
Alabama	37.8	30.9	31.3	100.0	249
Mississippi	23.9	45.3	30.8	100.0	234
Arkansas	18.9	52.4	28.7	100.0	254
Georgia	26.3	46.3	27.5	100.0	240
Florida	12.4	57.9	29.6	100.0	233
Virginia	24.0	37.6	38.4	100.0	250
Tennessee	27.5	41.0	31.6	100.0	244
Kentucky	20.8	58.0	21.2	100.0	255
Average %	24.1	47.0	28.9		

Knowing the Right People (Table 6.19)

In the rural South, it is interesting to note that a surprisingly large number of households believe it important to know the right people to get a job. More than three-quarters

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of the respondents in all states felt that knowing the right people in securing a job was either a "serious problem" or "somewhat of a problem". Except for North Carolina (20%), more than one-quarter of the respondents ranging from 28% in Arkansas to 46% in Tennessee had expressed that knowing the right people was a "serious problem" in being hired.

Table 6.19. Knowing the Right People in Securing Employment

States	Serious Problem	Somewhat a Problem	No Problem	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	44.4	43.4	12.1	100.0	297
North Carolina	20.3	46.9	32.8	100.0	241
Alabama	45.4	30.5	24.1	100.0	249
Mississippi	41.9	38.1	19.9	100.0	236
Arkansas	27.6	44.1	28.3	100.0	254
Georgia	32.5	40.3	27.2	100.0	243
Florida	27.5	50.6	21.9	100.0	233
Virginia	30.6	34.5	34.9	100.0	252
Tennessee	46.1	37.9	16.0	100.0	243
Kentucky	42.2	51.6	6.3	100.0	256
Average %	35.9	41.8	22.4		

Present Situation in Terms of Ability to Work (Table 6.20)

Finally, respondents were asked to describe their present situation, selecting one of the following three fixed alternative responses: (1) not able to work at all; (2) able to work but limited in amount of work or kind of work I can do; and (3) able to work but limited in kind or amount of other activities I can do. In Table 6.20, missing data were included for analysis because the missing data in this case can be treated as an alternative response reflecting that individuals had no restraints whatsoever in terms of ability to work and in terms of engaging themselves in other activities.

Throughout the rural South, on the average, little more than one out of five heads of households were "not able to work at all". This response was most frequently reported in Arkansas (33%), Mississippi (30%), Florida (27%), Kentucky (27%), and South Carolina (23%), while it was least frequently noted in North Carolina (14%), Virginia (15%), Tennessee (16%), Georgia (22%), and Alabama (23%). In addition, a large number of people in almost all states fell in the category of "able to work but limited in amount or kind of work I can do," ranging from a high of 46% in Arkansas to a low of 23% in Virginia. Equally interesting, the proportions of the third category (limited in amount of other activities) were also relatively high in most states, ranging from 36% in Tennessee to 17% in Alabama, with some exceptions for Mississippi (2%), and Virginia (7%).

Value, Attitudes, and Beliefs with the Poverty Index (Table 6.21)

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed here to determine the significance of

Table 6.20. Present Situation in Term of Ability to Work

States	Not Able to Work at All	Able to Work But Limited in Amount of Work I Can Do	Able to Work But Limited in Amount of Other Activities I Can Do	Missing Data	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	23.4	32.1	24.4	20.2	100.0	312
North Carolina	13.7	40.6	27.7	18.1	100.0	249
Alabama	22.6	40.9	16.7	19.8	100.0	254
Mississippi	30.2	23.4	2.0	44.4	100.0	248
Arkansas	32.5	46.3	19.6	1.6	100.0	255
Georgia	21.8	40.3	23.8	14.1	100.0	248
Florida	27.1	35.8	30.4	6.7	100.0	240
Virginia	15.4	23.2	7.3	54.1	100.0	259
Tennessee	16.1	39.5	35.9	8.5	100.0	248
Kentucky	26.6	42.6	25.1	5.7	100.0	263
Average %	22.9	36.5	21.3	19.3		

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Table 6.21. Summary of Pearson's Correlation (r) Tests to Identify Significant Associations of Values, Attitudes, and Beliefs About the Self and Work With the Poverty Index*

Values, Attitudes and Beliefs	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
Self-esteem										
Item 1	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Item 4	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	-
Item 5	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Item 8	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Fatalism										
Item 2	-	-	++	-	+	+	++	+	-	++
Item 3	++	++	++	++	++	-	++	-	++	++
Present-time Orientation										
Item 6	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Item 7	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Work as a Moral Obligation										
Item 9	-	-	-	++	++	-	-	-	-	++
Item 10	-	-	+	-	-	-	++	-	++	+
Item 15	+	++	++	-	-	-	++	-	+	++
Work as a Painful Way of Life										
Item 11	++	++	++	-	++	-	++	-	++	++
Item 13	++	++	-	+	-	-	-	+	++	-
Dependency in Relation to Work										
Item 12	++	++	++	++	-	+	++	++	++	-
Item 14	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Expectation of Children's Educational Achievement	-	+	-	-	-	++	+	-	-	-
Perception of Children's Future in Community	-	-	++	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
Estimate of Job Opportunities for Children in Community	-	++	++	-	+	-	-	-	-	-

*Key to symbols: - = Test not significant within 0.1000 level of probability.
+ = Test marginally significant from 0.0501 to 0.1000 level of probability.
++ = Test significant from 0.0500 to 0.0000 level of probability.

associations between the 38 social psychological variables studied and the poverty index. The results are presented in two tables.

In Table 6.21, 18 variables concerned with value orientations toward the self and work and with educational and employment opportunities of children, were examined for their probable relationship with the poverty index, state by state. Of the 180 Pearson's correlation coefficients computed in Table 6.21, 110 (61%) yielded significant correlations and 14 (7.8%) indicated marginal correlations. Data analyses for the southern rural population studies, showed that cultural value traits were significantly associated with the poverty index in every state. In fact, all four item variables of self-esteem and both item variables of present-time orientation, among the three value traits, were the attributes that tended to be significantly associated with the poverty index at probability levels of 0.05 or lower in every state, except the item four variable of self-esteem in Kentucky. Two fatalism variables appeared to be comparatively less often associated with the poverty index throughout the 10 rural southern states than the self-esteem and present-time orientation variables.

Seven variables, representing general attitudes towards work, yielded far fewer frequencies of significant associations with the poverty index than the cultural value variables. Only item 14 variable of dependency in relation to work, as shown in Table 6.21, was significantly correlated to the poverty index in each of the 10 southern states. Variables of "work as a moral duty" and "work as a painful way of life" were less frequently related to the poverty index than the variables of dependency. Unlike the dependency variables, there was no evidence of a consistent trend of significant correlations with the poverty index throughout these rural states with respect to the variables of work as either "a moral duty" or "a painful way of life".

As displayed in Table 6.21, three variables for educational and employment opportunities for children in the community showed fewer differences between the poor and nonpoor in terms of their perceptions of educational and career futures of the young people in their community. Exceptions in the three variables for the significant associations with the poverty index in probability levels of 0.05 or lower were reported only in Virginia for the variable of "children's educational attainment," in Alabama for the variable of children's career future in the community, and in North Carolina and Alabama for the variable of "job opportunities for the young people in the community".

Job-Related Issues and the Poverty Index (Table 6.22)

In Table 6.22, 14 variables, representing various aspects of conditions and problems closely related to work or employment opportunities of rural families, were examined for their associations with the poverty index. Of the 170 Pearson's correlation coefficients computed, 47%, or about one of every two, yielded evidence of significant correlations at the 0.05 level of probability or lower. An additional 15 coefficients (0.9%) were marginally significant. Of the 14 variables, only the variables for "transportation" and for "present situations of physical ability to work" as a serious problem in securing employment emerged as significantly related to the poverty index in probability levels of 0.05 or lower in all the states with only one exception (Virginia) in the case of the present situation variable. Other variables such as "interest in training for better job" by spouses, "distance to travel" by spouses, "discrimination by age, race, and sex," "lack of information," and "knowing right people" appeared to have, in more than five of the 10 southern states, significant or marginal correlations with the poverty index. However, the correlations of these variables with the poverty index were hardly consistent throughout the rural South.

In summary, it should be noted that throughout the rural states there are very distinctive and consistent social psychological attributes which characterize the poor in general. From the cultural value perspective, almost all of the rural poor in the South were heavily affected by present-time orientation, low self-esteem, dependency, and fatalism in a declining order. In addition, they were also severely hampered by the lack of transportation and physical disability or very limited employment opportunities in their struggle to improve their standard of living.

Table 6.22. Summary of Pearson's Correlation (r) Tests to Identify Significant Associations of Job-Related Issues with the Poverty Index*

Job-Related Issues	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
Interest in Training for Better Job										
Head	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
Spouse	+	-	++	++	++	-	++	+	-	-
Kinds of Job Prefered-for Training										
Head	++	-	++	-	++	++	-	-	-	-
Spouse	-	-	++	++	++	++	-	-	++	-
Distance to Travel If Employed										
Head	-	-	++	++	-	++	-	++	-	-
Spouse	++	++	++	++	++	-	++	-	+	++
Kinds of Child Care Preferred If Employed	++	++	-	+	-	-	++	-	-	+
Responsible Authority for Providing Jobs	-	++	+	-	++	-	++	-	++	+
Kinds of Problems in Securing Job										
Discrimination by:										
Age	-	-	++	++	++	-	++	++	++	-
Race	++	-	-	+	++	-	++	++	++	-
Sex	-	-	++	-	++	+	++	++	++	++
Limited Opportunities	-	++	-	-	-	-	++	-	-	-
Transportation	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	++
Lack of Training	-	-	++	-	-	-	-	++	-	-
Lack of Information	+	-	++	++	++	-	+	++	++	-
Knowing Right People	++	-	-	++	-	+	-	++	+	++
Present Situations of Physical Ability to Work	++	++	++	++	++	++	++	-	++	++

*Key to symbols: - = Test not significant within 0.1000 level of probability.
+ = Test marginally significant from 0.0501 to 0.1000 level of probability.
++ = Test significant from 0.0500 to 0.0000 level of probability.

7. CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

There is a wealth of information on consumer behavior. Some writers are concerned with the consumption of goods, others are concerned with marketing and still others are concerned with production. Thus the meaning of consumer behavior is difficult to pin down. Traditionally, consumer behavior has been used to simply refer to the consumption of good and services. In the present study it is used in a much broader sense. It is used to refer to producing or growing food, buying groceries, sources of credit, perceptions of food prices, housing arrangements, state of repair, problems, and related phenomena. Consumer behavior is also used to refer to medical insurance practices and household income. Although most activities are viewed as being encompassed by the term consumer behavior, the list in the present study is not exhaustive.

In this section, behavior regarding home food production, grocery shopping patterns, housing tenure and maintenance, medical insurance and household income was evaluated for the 10 samples.

Grew Vegetables at Home (Table 7.1)

In all states, over 65% of the respondents grew vegetables at home at one time or another, i.e., always or sometimes. Virginia with 80% and Kentucky with 81% were the two highest. Only four states: Mississippi, Arkansas, Georgia, and Florida had more than 30% of the respondents who never grew vegetables at home.

Table 7.1. Grow Vegetables at Home

State	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	39.5	32.8	27.7	100.0	311
North Carolina	51.4	24.5	24.1	100.0	245
Alabama	43.0	33.1	23.9	100.0	251
Mississippi	48.4	17.3	34.3	100.0	248
Arkansas	44.9	21.3	33.9	100.0	254
Georgia	35.2	33.6	31.2	100.0	247
Florida	28.4	38.6	33.1	100.0	236
Virginia	48.1	32.2	19.8	100.0	258
Tennessee	46.4	23.8	29.8	100.0	248
Kentucky	58.3	22.8	18.9	100.0	259

Raised Animals for Meat (Table 7.2)

In Kentucky, a high of 47% of the respondents sometimes or always raised animals for meat. In Florida, Mississippi, Virginia, and Tennessee, only 21% to 23% raised animals for meat. Other state samples were intermediate.

Table 7.2. Raise Animals for Meat

State	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	16.1	10.9	73.0	100.0	311
North Carolina	21.6	9.8	68.6	100.0	245
Alabama	17.5	19.5	62.9	100.0	251
Mississippi	14.1	7.7	78.2	100.0	248
Arkansas	12.2	13.0	74.8	100.0	254
Georgia	15.9	15.9	68.3	100.0	246
Florida	8.5	12.3	79.2	100.0	236
Virginia	10.5	11.6	77.9	100.0	258
Tennessee	11.3	11.7	77.0	100.0	248
Kentucky	12.0	34.5	53.5	100.0	258

Kept a Cow or Goat for Milk (Table 7.3)

Respondents in Kentucky kept cows and/or goats for milk more than in any other state. Kentucky with 25%, more than any other state, doubled Alabama with 12%, and more than tripled all the other states. The other states ranged from 3% for Florida to 7% for Mississippi.

Table 7.3. Keep a Cow or Goat for Milk

States	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	3.2	1.9	94.8	100.0	310
North Carolina	2.9	2.0	95.1	100.0	245
Alabama	6.0	5.6	88.4	100.0	250
Mississippi	2.8	4.5	92.7	100.0	247
Arkansas	2.0	2.8	95.3	100.0	254
Georgia	1.2	4.5	94.3	100.0	247
Florida	0.8	2.1	97.1	100.0	238
Virginia	1.9	2.3	95.7	100.0	257
Tennessee	2.8	2.8	94.3	100.0	247
Kentucky	7.4	17.1	75.5	100.0	257

Raised Chickens for Eggs (Table 7.4)

In Kentucky, 40% of the respondents raised chickens as compared to 10% for Virginia. All other states ranged from 16% for Florida to 29% for Alabama. In the first four tables (7.1 - 7.4), the three urban states, Georgia, Florida, and Virginia, usually had the smallest percenta-

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ges of sample households that always raised chickens.

Table 7.4. Raise Chickens for Eggs

State	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	13.5	9.6	76.8	100.0	311
North Carolina	12.2	6.9	80.8	100.0	245
Alabama	18.8	10.8	70.4	100.0	250
Mississippi	11.4	8.1	80.5	100.0	246
Arkansas	11.0	6.3	82.7	100.0	254
Georgia	10.9	8.9	80.2	100.0	247
Florida	8.5	7.6	83.9	100.0	236
Virginia	6.6	3.5	89.9	100.0	257
Tennessee	11.3	6.5	82.3	100.0	248
Kentucky	28.0	12.1	59.9	100.0	257

Table 7.5. Means of Buying Groceries

States	Credit & Cash	Cash	Food-stamps & Cash	Food-stamps Credit & Cash	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	5.5	73.6	18.6	2.3	100.0	311
North Carolina	7.7	68.3*	19.9	4.1	100.0	246
Alabama	10.0	66.9	21.5	3.6	100.0	251
Mississippi	13.7	52.0	29.4	4.8	100.0	248
Arkansas	8.3	71.8	19.4	0.4	100.0	252
Georgia	20.2	72.5	5.3	2.0	100.0	247
Florida	5.5	70.3	23.3	0.8	100.0	236
Virginia	3.9	88.3	6.6	1.2	100.0	257
Tennessee	12.5	71.0	14.9	1.6	100.0	248
Kentucky	9.7	51.4	18.9	20.1	100.0	259

* Includes one person who barters for food

Source of Purchasing Power for Groceries (Table 7.5)

In all states, cash was most often selected as the basis for buying groceries. Food stamps and cash in combination ranked second in all states except Kentucky and Georgia. Georgia respondents named credit and cash as the second most frequently selected means of paying for groceries and those from Kentucky named food stamps, credit, and cash second. Food stamps, credit, and cash ranked fourth except for Kentucky respondents who named credit and cash fourth. Only North Carolina had a respondent who used barter.

Source of Credit for Groceries (Table 7.6)

The majority of the respondents in each state, except South Carolina (36%) and Florida (36%), indicated that for groceries the grocer was the main source of credit. Arkansas had the highest with 92%; Mississippi (86%) and Kentucky (84%) were the second highest, while Alabama (56%) and Georgia (55%) were lowest. In all states, the respondents received less than 9% of credit from their neighbors, relatives, and bosses combined. South Carolina (60%) and Florida (59%) indicated other sources as their main creditors.

Table 7.6. Source of Credit for Groceries

State	Grocer	Neighbor	Relative	Boss	Other	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	35.5	1.7	1.7	1.2	59.9	100.0	172
North Carolina	60.0	0.5	2.1	1.5	35.9	100.0	195
Alabama	56.0	3.2	1.6	0.4	38.9	100.0	252
Mississippi	86.1	1.9	1.9	1.9	8.3	100.0	108
Arkansas	92.2	2.2	2.8	0.6	2.2	100.0	179
Georgia	54.6	0.4	1.7	1.3	42.0	100.0	238
Florida	36.3	0.4	2.6	1.7	59.0	100.0	234
Virginia	64.1	3.1	1.6	3.1	28.1	100.0	64
Tennessee	60.7	1.0	2.0		36.3	100.0	201
Kentucky	83.6	1.4	2.8	0.5	11.7	100.0	213

Table 7.7. Look for Sales on Groceries

States	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	75.7	15.9	8.4	100.0	309
North Carolina	57.2	27.2	15.6	100.0	243
Alabama	58.2	35.9	6.0	100.0	251
Mississippi	58.5	33.1	8.5	100.0	248
Arkansas	67.2	25.7	7.1	100.0	253
Georgia	63.7	27.8	8.6	100.0	245
Florida	62.3	31.4	6.4	100.0	236
Virginia	65.5	29.0	5.5	100.0	255
Tennessee	64.1	27.4	8.5	100.0	248
Kentucky	49.8	47.1	3.1	100.0	257

Looked for Sales Before Buying Groceries (Table 7.7)

Over 49% of the respondents in all states said that they always look for sales before buying groceries. South Carolina was the highest with 76% and Kentucky was the lowest with 9%. Those respondents who sometimes looked for sales fell within a range of 26% to 36% for all states except South Carolina with 16% and Kentucky with 47%. For those respondents who never looked for sales, the percentage was less than 10% in all states except North Carolina which had 16%.

Bought Groceries Locally (Table 7.8)

In South Carolina, a low of 38% of the respondents "always" bought groceries locally

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while a high of 44% "never" bought groceries locally. The "always local buyers" for other states ranged from 45% in Alabama to 67% in Tennessee. For "never local buyers," North Carolina had 25% and all other states (except South Carolina) had below 20%. There was a slight tendency for predominately black samples to "never buy locally" and white samples to "always buy locally".

Table 7.8. Buy Groceries Locally

States	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	38.3	17.7	44.1	100.0	311
North Carolina	45.9	29.5	24.6	100.0	244
Alabama	44.6	41.0	14.5	100.0	249
Mississippi	66.8	31.2	2.0	100.0	247
Arkansas	45.8	37.5	16.6	100.0	253
Georgia	58.3	32.8	8.9	100.0	247
Florida	57.4	34.0	8.5	100.0	235
Virginia	48.4	33.3	18.2	100.0	258
Tennessee	67.5	26.0	6.5	100.0	246
Kentucky	59.7	36.8	3.5	100.0	258

Table 7.9. Receive Fair Prices on Groceries

States	Always	Sometimes	Never	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	15.4	39.0	45.6	100.0	305
North Carolina	27.3	43.0	29.8	100.0	242
Alabama	31.6	50.0	18.4	100.0	250
Mississippi	26.1	53.9	19.9	100.0	241
Arkansas	25.2	50.0	24.8	100.0	254
Georgia	27.9	55.5	16.6	100.0	247
Florida	29.9	51.3	18.8	100.0	234
Virginia	26.2	57.4	16.5	100.0	237
Tennessee	34.3	53.5	12.2	100.0	245
Kentucky	31.0	63.2	5.8	100.0	258

Received Fair Prices on Groceries (Table 7.9)

South Carolina had only 15% of respondents who felt that they "always" received fair prices on groceries while the other states ranged from 25% to 34%. From 63% to 50% of the respondents felt that they sometimes received fair prices on groceries in all states except South Carolina which had 39%, and North Carolina, 43%. Only one-fifth, or less of the respondents felt that they never received fair prices on groceries in all the states except Arkansas which had 25%, North Carolina, 30%, and South Carolina, 46%. Again, the predominately black samples were less likely to report receiving fair prices on groceries.

Respondents that either Owned, were Buying, Rented or Lived in Rent Free Home (Table 7.10)

Table 7.10 shows that in all the states, 68% to 84% of the respondents either owned or were buying their homes. Less than 20% of the respondents were renting except in Florida which had 24%, and Tennessee 23%. As for "rent free" dwellers, the percentage was less than 10% in all states except Mississippi, Georgia, and Kentucky which ranged from 11% to 16%.

Table 7.10. Percentage of Respondents that Own, Rent, or Live in Home Rent Free

States	Own	Buying	Rent	Rent-Free	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	47.7	31.9	11.9	8.4	100.0	310
North Carolina	42.4	35.4	14.8	7.4	100.0	243
Alabama	58.6	16.7	18.3	6.4	100.0	251
Mississippi	49.6	19.0	15.7	15.7	100.0	248
Arkansas	57.3	21.6	13.7	7.5	100.0	255
Georgia	54.8	21.8	12.1	11.3	100.0	248
Florida	44.5	23.7	24.2	7.6	100.0	236
Virginia	57.8	26.4	9.3	6.6	100.0	258
Tennessee	45.9	24.8	22.8	6.5	100.0	246
Kentucky	58.0	17.9	13.6	10.5	100.0	257

Table 7.11. Amount of Land this House/Apartment/Trailer Sits on

States	-1	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	29.5	42.5	6.7	4.5	1.9	1.1	13.8	100.0	268
North Carolina	30.3	50.4	5.9	2.1	.4	1.7	9.2	100.0	238
Alabama	33.8	38.8	8.3	2.5	2.1	1.3	13.3	100.0	240
Mississippi	43.2	26.0	5.2		4.7	1.6	19.3	100.0	192
Arkansas	38.1	37.0	5.3	2.4	.4	.8	15.9	100.0	246
Georgia	41.2	33.5	3.4	.9	1.3	.9	18.9	100.0	233
Florida	49.3	24.9	7.9	1.7	3.1	.9	12.2	100.0	229
Virginia	26.3	41.8	10.8	3.6	1.3	2.0	14.3	100.0	251
Tennessee	47.7	27.8	5.4	4.6	2.5	1.7	10.4	100.0	241
Kentucky	28.2	38.5	11.5	3.6	3.2	.4	14.7	100.0	252

Acres of Land that Residence Sets on (Table 7.11)

In all states, the majority of the respondents lived on five acres of land or less. The range was from 67% for Kentucky to 81% for North Carolina. The respondents who lived on 6 to 25 acres of land ranged from 7% for Georgia to 19% for Kentucky; and those that lived on 26 or more acres ranged from 9% for North Carolina to 19% each for Mississippi and Georgia.

Approximate Value of Residence (Table 7.12)

In all states, from 11% (South Carolina) to 36% (Alabama) of the respondents estimated the

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current market value of their homes to be less than $15,000. For those respondents who valued their homes $50,000 and up, South Carolina and Virginia were the highest with 40% and 41% respectively. All other states ranged upwards from 13% (Kentucky) to 34% (Tennessee). Only Mississippi and Kentucky respondents reported median housing values of less than $25,000, while Tennessee, South Carolina, and Virginia had median values above $35,000.

Table 7.12. Approximate Current Market Value of Residence ($000)

States	0-15	15-25	25-35	35-50	50+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	11.0	13.0	18.5	17.5	40.0	100.0	200
North Carolina	34.8	9.6	13.1	20.2	22.2	100.0	198
Alabama	35.6	13.2	13.2	14.2	23.7	100.0	219
Mississippi	39.9	17.1	13.3	15.2	14.6	100.0	158
Arkansas	28.1	21.5	16.5	13.2	20.6	100.0	242
Georgia	30.7	17.7	16.7	13.5	21.4	100.0	192
Florida	28.0	22.2	11.6	15.0	23.2	100.0	207
Virginia	13.4	9.6	14.9	21.6	40.5	100.0	208
Tennessee	18.7	12.9	16.0	18.7	33.8	100.0	225
Kentucky	38.6	22.3	16.9	9.0	13.2	100.0	164

Table 7.13. Number of Rooms in Residence

States	1-2	3	4	5	6+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	1.0	4.9	16.7	31.4	46.1	100.0	306
North Carolina	0.8	4.1	14.3	33.2	47.5	100.0	244
Alabama	8.4	13.2	15.2	16.8	46.4	100.0	250
Mississippi	1.6	6.0	22.2	35.9	34.3	100.0	248
Arkansas	1.6	1.2	15.7	35.7	45.9	100.0	255
Georgia	0.8	6.5	21.5	25.2	45.9	100.0	246
Florida	1.8	7.2	20.9	28.9	41.3	100.0	235
Virginia	0.0	2.3	11.2	26.0	60.5	100.0	258
Tennessee	0.4	5.2	21.4	28.2	44.8	100.0	248
Kentucky	0.4	6.9	26.3	34.7	31.7	100.0	259

Number of Rooms in Residence (Table 7.13)

Respondents were asked to give the number of rooms in their homes excluding porches, halls, and bathrooms. In all states except Alabama (78%), over 90% of the respondents lived in homes which had four rooms or more. Only Virginia respondents (60%) reported more than 50% living in homes with six or more rooms. Five rooms was the median for all samples except Virginia.

State of Residential Repairs (Table 7.14)

At least 50% of the respondents in all states needed either major or minor repairs to their houses. Residences needing major repair work ranged from 10% (Virginia) to 29% (Mississippi). Highest percentages needing no repairs were recorded in Mississippi (46%), Virginia (45%), and Arkansas (41%); the lowest were in Georgia (29%) and South Carolina (30%).

Table 7.14. State of Residential Repair

States	Needs Minor Repairs	Needs Major Repairs	Needs No Repairs	Don't Know	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	42.1	26.2	29.8	1.9	100.0	309
North Carolina	37.9	24.3	36.6	1.2	100.0	243
Alabama	36.4	28.0	35.6	0.0	100.0	250
Mississippi	25.0	29.4	45.6	0.0	100.0	248
Arkansas	39.0	20.1	40.6	0.4	100.0	254
Georgia	48.4	20.3	29.3	2.0	100.0	246
Florida	38.3	26.4	35.3	0.0	100.0	235
Virginia	40.2	9.7	44.8	5.4	100.0	259
Tennessee	38.5	20.2	39.9	0.4	100.0	248
Kentucky	39.0	22.4	35.1	3.5	100.0	259

Table 7.15. What Inhibits Residential Repair

States	Can't Afford Repairs	Physical Problems	Don't Know How	Manager Won't Repair	Other	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	62.6*	9.8	1.8	10.7	14.0	100.0	214
North Carolina	52.5*	9.6	0.6	17.3	19.9	100.0	156
Alabama	52.7*	10.9	4.2	9.7	22.4	100.0	165
Mississippi	51.8*	9.5	1.5	31.4	5.8	100.0	137
Arkansas	60.5*	7.0	5.1	15.3	12.1	100.0	157
Georgia	53.9*	6.3	9.1	24.4	100.0	176	
Florida	48.1	8.4	1.3	23.4	18.2	100.0	154
Virginia	56.5	6.1	6.9	6.1	24.4	100.0	131
Tennessee	40.5	8.5	3.3	19.6	28.1	100.0	153
Kentucky	54.0	17.1	3.7	9.8	14.6	100.0	164

*Does not include transportation.

What Inhibits Residential Repairs (Table 7.15)

In all states, the majority of the respondents reported that they could not afford repairs to their residences. The range varied from 63% for South Carolina to 41% for Tennessee. As the percentage of black families in each state sample decreased, the percentage that could not afford the repairs also decreased. Four states -- Arkansas (61%), Georgia (54%), Kentucky (55%), and Virginia (57%) -- deviated slightly from this observation. Respondents who were unable to repair their homes due to physical problems ranged from 6% (Georgia and Virginia) to 17% (Kentucky). Respondents answering "don't know how to do the repairs" ranged from 0.6% (North Carolina) to 7% (Virginia). The proportion of the responses that indicated that the manager would not repair their residences ranged from 6% (Virginia) to 31% (Mississippi). Other reasons why repairs were not done accounted for 6% (Mississippi) to 28% (Tennessee).

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Table 7.16. Housing Problems

States	None	Problem With Manager	House Too Expensive	Needed Repair	Too Much To Care For	Location Inconvenient	Danger Noise	Other	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	81.4	0.0	0.6	12.5	0.3	0.3	0.6	3.8	100.0	310
North Carolina	74.9	3.2	0.8	16.1	0.4	0.4	0.0	6.8	100.0	243
Alabama	77.4	0.8	0.0	15.1	0.4	1.2	0.4	3.2	100.0	249
Mississippi	65.3	1.2	0.0	26.2	0.0	0.8	0.4	4.8	100.0	244
Arkansas	63.6	0.8	2.0	30.2	0.4	0.0	2.0	3.1	100.0	254
Georgia	79.4	0.0	0.8	12.5	0.4	0.4	2.8	4.0	100.0	247
Florida	71.7	0.8	0.4	16.3	0.0	0.4	1.6	7.1	100.0	231
Virginia	84.6	0.0	1.9	3.1	0.4	1.5	0.4	9.7	100.0	257
Tennessee	79.5	1.0	0.6	11.1	0.0	2.2	0.8	4.6	100.0	244
Kentucky	71.8	0.4	0.4	14.4	0.4	2.7	0.8	9.1	100.0	253

Housing Problems (Table 7.16)

For a clearer understanding of housing problems, respondents were asked for their general evaluations of their homes. The extent to which the respondents indicated that they lived in a good residence ranged from 64% for Arkansas to 81% for South Carolina which suggests that people in general, are tolerant of minor house repair needs (reported in Table 7.14). In response to the general evaluation item, a low of 3% in Virginia and a high of 30% in Arkansas responded that they disliked their residence because the houses needed repairs. Problems with the manager, house too dangerous dangerous or noisy were reasons listed by fewer than a total of 5% of the respondents in each state.

Preference for Same Race in Racial Composition of Neighborhood (Table 7.17)

The majority of respondents in five states had a strong preference for living in a neighborhood where the residents were of the same race. Same race preferences ranged from 27% (Virginia) to 82% (Kentucky).

While Kentucky respondents, whose percentage of black households was 1%, showed the strongest preference for living in a same race neighborhood, there was no general relationship between the racial composition of the samples and preference for same race neighborhoods. The respondents who did not have a preference for neighbors of the same race ranged from 2% (Mississippi) to 18% (Tennessee). More than 40% of respondents in six states indicated that race of neighborhood did not matter.

Table 7.17. Preference for Racial Composition of Neighborhood

State	Yes	No	Doesn't Matter	Total	
	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	43.5	8.8	42.7	100.0	308
North Carolina	39.8	8.6	51.6	100.0	244
Alabama	47.6	8.8	43.6	100.0	250
Mississippi	50.2	2.4	47.4	100.0	247
Arkansas	43.5	2.7	53.3	100.0	254
Georgia	63.6	4.5	32.0	100.0	247
Florida	59.3	3.8	36.9	100.0	236
Virginia	26.6	7.0	66.4	100.0	256
Tennessee	50.2	18.0	31.8	100.0	255
Kentucky	81.6	2.7	15.7	100.0	255

Table 7.18. Respondents' Waiting for Subsidized Housing by Time

States	0-12	13-36	Total	
	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	100.0	0	100.0	3
North Carolina	50.0	50.0	100.0	2
Alabama	87.5	12.5	100.0	8
Mississippi	80.0	20.0	100.0	5
Arkansas	0.0	100.0	100.0	2
Georgia	50.0	50.0	100.0	10
Florida	70.0	30.0	100.0	0
Virginia	0.0	0.0	100.0	0
Tennessee	50.0	50.0	100.0	6
Kentucky	85.7	14.3	100.0	7

Respondents Waiting for Subsidized Housing by Time (Table 7.18)

The number of respondents in waiting for subsidized housing ranged from 10 persons in Georgia to zero persons in Florida and Virginia.

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Of the 53 respondents who were on some states' waiting lists, seventeen reported waiting more than 12 months, five in Georgia, and three in both Tennessee and Florida.

Medical Insurance Coverage and Adequacy (Table 7.19)

Respondents with health or hospitalization insurance coverage, including Medicare and Medicaid, ranged from 88% for Virginia to 70% for Kentucky. Of the respondents who were covered by medical insurance, a low of 54% for Arkansas and a high of 87% for Alabama felt that their insurance was adequate.

Table 7.19. Respondents' Medical Insurance Coverage and Adequacy

States	Yes	N	Yes	N
	%	N	%	N
South Carolina	81.0	(311)	70.8	(253)
North Carolina	83.1	(242)	77.8	(212)
Alabama	86.1	(251)	87.3	(204)
Mississippi	79.8	(248)	73.0	(200)
Arkansas	77.2	(254)	54.1	(201)
Georgia	86.3	(248)	74.5	(216)
Florida	78.8	(236)	82.4	(187)
Virginia	88.0	(259)	86.7	(241)
Tennessee	84.6	(247)	83.3	(187)
Kentucky	70.3	(259)	64.3	(197)

Table 7.20. Household Income (000's)

States	0-4	4-8	8-12	12-25	25+	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	27.7	25.8	18.7	18.8	11.0	100.0	310
North Carolina	23.3	26.1	13.9	26.7	9.9	100.0	202
Alabama	26.7	25.2	11.7	23.5	13.0	100.0	269
Mississippi	30.1	35.6	11.6	17.9	5.0	100.0	260
Arkansas	24.9	22.8	11.1	26.5	7.6	100.0	237
Georgia	17.2	25.7	17.2	24.7	15.2	100.0	210
Florida	26.5	26.3	12.0	25.0	10.2	100.0	216
Virginia	13.8	20.0	16.9	28.9	20.4	100.0	225
Tennessee	15.2	21.8	17.4	24.8	20.9	100.0	230
Kentucky	17.7	46.0	19.5	13.6	3.2	100.0	220

Household Income (Table 7.20)

Respondent households earning incomes less than $4,000 per year ranged from 14% for Virginia to 30% for Mississippi. Respondents earning incomes greater than $25,000 ranged from 3% for Kentucky to 21% for Tennessee. The median income for sample households fell below $8,000 in South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, and Kentucky. The remaining four states had sample median income which ranged from $8,000 (Arkansas and North Carolina) to $12,000 (Virginia).

Household Primary Source of Income (Table 7.21)

Between 46% (Mississippi) and 69% (Tennessee) of the respondents, recorded wages and salaries as their primary source of income. The second most frequently reported category was "other transfer payments" including social security. The range was 6% (North Carolina) to 42% (Mississippi). Least frequent were respondents recording receipt of aid to families with dependent children and food stamps, which ranged from below 1% (Virginia) to 11% (Arkansas). Third, other primary sources of income including rents and interests ranged from 3% (Alabama) to 31% (Florida).

Table 7.21. Household Primary Source of Income

States	Wages	Other Trans	ADC & Food-Stamps	Other	NR	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	54.5	34.2	1.9	7.6	1.9	100.0	310
North Carolina	62.2	6.3	2.9	26.1	2.5	100.0	238
Alabama	61.4	30.9	4.0	3.2	0.4	100.0	249
Mississippi	46.0	42.3	3.6	7.3	0.8	100.0	248
Arkansas	49.4	24.3	11.4	14.1	0.8	100.0	255
Georgia	61.5	17.8	4.5	12.1	4.0	100.0	267
Florida	46.7	14.4	6.6	31.0	0.4	100.0	229
Virginia	66.8	18.9	0.4	11.2	2.7	100.0	259
Tennessee	69.1	19.5	4.9	4.9	1.6	100.0	246
Kentucky	51.6	10.9	5.8	30.2	1.6	100.0	258

Table 7.22. Household Secondary Source of Income

States	Wages	Other Trans.	ADC & Food-Stamps	Other	No Secondary Income	NR	Total	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	N
South Carolina	4.5	4.8	15.2	7.4	61.3	6.8	100.0	310
North Carolina	7.5	2.2	7.9	18.4	59.2	4.4	100.0	227
Alabama	13.3	12.4	13.7	9.2	49.4	2.0	100.0	249
Mississippi	7.3	12.1	13.7	9.2	49.4	2.0	100.0	248
Arkansas	3.5	3.5	3.9	10.2	76.4	2.4	100.0	254
Georgia	16.8	5.7	4.1	13.9	45.5	13.9	100.0	244
Florida	4.5	7.0	9.1	19.1	57.8	0.4	100.0	230
Virginia	12.0	7.0	3.1	7.8	55.8	14.3	100.0	258
Tennessee	8.2	9.8	2.0	20.9	54.5	4.5	100.0	244
Kentucky	5.8	1.9	23.3	21.3	41.9	5.8	100.0	258

Household Secondary Source of Income (Table 7.22)

Between 42% (Kentucky) and 76% (Arkansas) of the respondents reported no secondary source of income. Only 4% (Arkansas) to 17% (Georgia)

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of the respondents recorded wages and salaries as a secondary source of income. Other sources of secondary income including interest, rents, and dividends was the most prominent variable. Sample proportions fell between 7% (Mississippi) to 21% (Kentucky). Aid to families with dependent children and food stamps was the second most frequently reported secondary source of income. Sample proportions were between 2% (Tennessee) and 23% (Kentucky).

Consumer Behavior and the Poverty Index (Table 7.23)

Grow vegetable at home: The relationship between growing vegetables at home and being above the poverty line was significant at the .05 level for Georgia and Florida and the .10 level for Arkansas. However, Kentucky showed a significant (.10) degree of association in the opposite direction.

Raise animals for meat: For Florida and Tennessee, the relationship between this variable and the poverty index was significant at the .05 level of probability with a low degree of association. In Tennessee, poverty households were more likely to raise animals for meat, while in Florida the above poverty households were more liable to do so.

Keep cow or goat for milk: Alabama and Tennessee showed a significant, but low degree of association at the .05 level of probability between the practice of keeping a goat or cow for milk and poverty status.

Keep chickens for eggs: Poverty households in Alabama, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Kentucky showed a significant, but low degree of association with keeping chickens for eggs. Alabama and Tennessee were significant at the .05 and North Carolina and Kentucky at .10 level.

Means of buying groceries: In all states, a moderate to low association with the poverty index was significant at the .05 level of probability. The below poverty households tended to use a combination of cash or food stamps and cash, while the above poverty households used cash more frequently to pay for their groceries.

From whom respondents received credit to get groceries: Relationships were significant for Alabama, Florida, and Virginia at the .05 level of probability and South Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee at the .10 level of probability. The Cramer's V association was moderate for Virginia and low for the rest. In all the states a minimum of 40% of the below poverty households tended to get credit from their grocer, while the nonpoverty households, except in Arkansas, got their grocery credit mainly from other sources. In Arkansas, 94% of the above poverty households got credit from the grocer.

Looking for sales: Below poverty households in Tennessee were more likely to always look for sales. The relationship to the poverty index was significant at 0.05 level with a low degree of association.

Buying groceries locally: South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia showed mixed, but significant relationships at the .05 level with a low degree of association. In South Carolina and Virginia, the above poverty households tended to buy their groceries locally more often than the poverty households. This relationship was the opposite for Georgia.

Receive fair prices on groceries: South Carolina and Mississippi showed significant, but opposite relationships at the .05 level of probability. The above poverty households in South Carolina were more likely to report receiving fair grocery prices than the below poverty households. In Mississippi, the opposite was observed.

Owned, were buying, rented, or lived in home rent free· In all states except Tennessee, there was a significant relationship at the .05 level of probability with a low degree of association. Only in North Carolina and Florida did the below poverty households tend to own their residence more frequently than the above poverty households.

Amount of land that home sets on: Below poverty households in Virginia were more likely to always live on a smaller piece of land. The relationship with the poverty index was significant at .05 level with a low degree of association.

Table 7.23. Summary of Chi Square Test of Independence and Phi/Cramer's V Measures of Association to Identify Significant Relationships and Magnitude of Correlation Between Consumer Behavior and the Poverty Index

Consumer Behavior	SC	NC	AL	MS	AR	GA	FL	VA	TN	KY
Grow vegetable at home	.05	.03	.07	.11	.16+	.16*	.17*	.07	.08	.15+
Raise animals for meat	.03	.10	.07	.06	.08	.12	.25*	.09	.16*	.06
Keep a cow or goat for milk	.06	.06	.18*	.06	.08	.04	.09	.08	.27*	.05
Raise chicken for eggs	.12	.15+	.24*	.11	.09	.03	.05	.06	.18*	.14+
Means for buying groceries	.50*	.49*	.37*	.50*	.40*	.31*	.56*	.29*	.52*	.45*
Receive credit for groceries from whom	.22+	.13	.20*	.12	.23+	.12	.33*	.40*	.19+	.13
Look for sales before buying groceries	.11	.02	.05	.12	.03	.04	.04	.11	.13+	.05
Buy groceries locally	.16*	.03	.04	.09	.02	.20*	.10	.16*	.10	.06
Receive fair prices on groceries	.20*	.11	.03	.18*	.03	.05	.11	.12	.07	.05
Owned, were buying, rented, or lived in home rent free	.24*	.26*	.25*	.22*	.24*	.34*	.35*	.20*	.13	.23*
Amount of land that home sets on	.12	.17	.11	.08	.17	.10	.13	.24*	.16	.12
Current value of home and land	.23	.38*	.36*	.32*	.44*	.40*	.29*	.47*	.35*	.40*
Number of rooms in residence	.20*	.30*	.35*	.23*	.28*	.33*	.31*	.13	.20*	.18+
Repairs of residence	.27*	.39*	.32*	.28+	.31*	.28*	.30*	.17+	.26*	.35*
Why repairs are not done	.38*	.51*	.38*	.19	.28*	.44*	.42*	.29*	.32*	.24
Is this a good residence	.27*	.30*	.29*	.20*	.26*	.34*	.10	.13	.12	.22*
Why not a good residence	.59*	.50*	.64*	.32+	.38+	.51	.53*	.31	.37	.42
Neighbors same race	.01	.10	.03	.04	.14	.05	.12	.13	.11	.12
Waiting list for government/ subsidized housing	.04	-	.15*	.10	.03	.13	.23*	.05	.06	.07
How long on waiting list	.50	.31	1.00	.14	-	.41	.20	.12	.88	.20
Family health & insurance	.26*	.32*	.21*	.12*	.21*	.16*	.40*	.15*	.23*	.16
Adequate family insurance	.30*	.36*	.38*	.22+	.24*	.33*	.43*	.18*	.30*	.15+
Personal yearly income	.80*	.67*	.66*	.68*	.68*	.71*	.74*	.62*	.69*	.66*
Primary source of income	.38*	.36*	.32*	.42*	.49*	.33*	.62*	.47*	.31*	.39*
Secondary source of income	.44*	.36*	.41*	.38*	.22*	.32*	.36*	.36*	.26*	.27*

*Chi square test significant at the 0.05 to level of probability.

+Chi square test marginally significant at the 0.10 level of probability.

Current value of homes and land: In all states, except South Carolina, there was a significant relationship between poverty and this variable at .05 level, but the degree of association was low for North Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee. In general, the value of houses in which most poverty households lived was lower than that of the nonpoverty households.

Number of rooms in residence: All states except Virginia and Kentucky showed a significant relationship in the expected direction between the number of rooms and the poverty index at the .05 level of probability.

Repairs of residence: For South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, Tennessee, and Kentucky the chi square and Cramer's V association were significant at the .05 level and for Mississippi and Virginia at the .10. Houses of below poverty households in all states were more likely to need major repairs while the nonpoverty households were more concerned with minor repairs. However, the degree of association between this variable and the poverty index was low.

Why repairs are not done: In all states except Mississippi and Kentucky, the chi square test between the households reason for no repair of residence and the poverty index was statistically significant at the .05. The Cramer's V association was moderate for Georgia, Florida, and North Carolina, but it was low for the rest of the states. More than 40% of the below poverty households in each state stated that they could not afford the repairs. This reason was less frequent among nonpoverty households.

Is this a good residence and why: For all states except Florida, Virginia, and Tennessee, housing problems and the poverty index relationship was statistically significant at the .05 level of probability. The Cramer's V association was low for all of these states. More than 12% of the below and 21% of the above poverty households stated dissatisfaction with their houses. Needs repair was the single main reason in approximately 67% of each state sample.

Neighbors same race: For all states, the chi square test between racial preference for neighborhood and the poverty index showed no significance. The Cramer's V association was low to negligible.

Waiting list for subsidized housing: For Alabama and Florida, the chi square test between the need for subsidized housing and the poverty index was statistically significant at the .05 level. About 5% to 9% of the below poverty households of both states stated that they had been on the waiting list and less than 1% of those above poverty were waiting.

Family health insurance: For all states except Kentucky, the relationship between family health and insurance and the poverty index was statistically significant at the .05 level. The Cramer's V association was moderate for Florida and low for the rest of the states. A maximum of 30% of the below poverty households mentioned that they did not have family health insurance, while less than 15% of the above poverty households mentioned the same problem.

Adequate insurance: For South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Florida, Virginia, and Tennessee, the chi square test between adequate insurance and the poverty index was statistically significant at .05, and for Mississippi and Kentucky at the .01 level of probability. The Cramer's V association was moderate for Florida and low for the remaining states. For the poverty households in each state, a maximum of 38% claimed inadequate insurance while less than 21% of the above poverty households claimed the same problem.

Personal yearly income: For all states, the association for households' income and the poverty index was statistically significant at the .01 level. The Cramer's V association ranged from a low of .62 for Virginia to a high of .80 for South Carolina.

Primary source of income: For all states, the chi square test between primary source of income and the poverty index was statistically significant at the .05 level of probability. The Cramer's V association was moderate for Mississippi and Arkansas, and low for the remaining states. The major source of primary income was stated to be wages and salaries. Which was reported as the primary source of income by a minimum of 43% and 76% for the below and above poverty households, respectively.

Secondary source of income: For all states, the relationship between secondary source of income and the poverty index was statistically significant at the .05 level of probability. The Cramer's V association was moderate for South Carolina and Alabama and low for the remaining states. The major source of secondary income reported by below poverty households was all types of transfer payments, with a range among the states from 13% to 36%. The second major source for above poverty households was found to be wages and salaries plus other sources ranging from 13% to 34%. In all states, the importance of transfer payments for below poverty families exceeded its importance to above poverty families as a secondary source. Similarly, above poverty families found wages, salaries and other sources of income more important than did below poverty families.

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APPENDIX A

PROPOSED SAMPLING PROCEDURE FOR RR-1 SURVEY

The RR-1 sample procedure is based on 10 state samples of at least 240 respondents each. The multistage sampling procedure includes three sample counties within each state, at least 30 sample clusters within the three counties and finally eight sample households within each sample cluster.

County sample frame (stage 1) and sample:

The RR-1 sample procedure is based on 10 state samples of at least 240 respondents each. The 10 state samples or replications were derived by first defining the list of counties that met the following criteria:

1. Less than 30.01% urban (incorporated places of 2500 or more in census of 1970).
2. More than 400 black population in all states but Kentucky. In Kentucky, 1.5% blacks (approximately 200) was the lower limit.
3. These counties in each state were arrayed by their median incomes (1970). The lower one-third of the array (one-half in Arkansas) were defined as the population of 400 or more. This population of 107 counties in 10 states may be described as racially-mixed, rural counties with low median family incomes.

Finally, the list of qualifying counties for each state was arrayed by percent black, lowest to highest. A random starting point between zero and one-third of the total population for all counties in the array was determined by use of a table of random numbers. In the array, the county with a population interval that straddled the random starting point was selected. The second county selected in the array had a population interval that straddled the starting point plus one-third of the total population for the array of counties. The third county selected from the array was the one with a population interval straddling the number equal to the sum of the starting point plus two-thirds of the total population. In general, this procedure yielded a predominately white county and a one-half black, one-half white county and a predominately black county. See Table A1 attached.

Sample size:

Within these three counties for each state, sample sizes (n) were assigned in proportion to each sample county's population. Cluster sizes were set at eight households. Thus, with a minimum sample size of 240, each state would have a minimum of 30 clusters. A county would have as many clusters as multiples of eight, or part thereof, fit into its proportionate sample n, e.g., a county with a sample of 81 would yield eleven clusters. Since 11 x 8 equals 88, the actual sample size expected is also 88.

Cluster sample frame (Stage 2) and sample:

National geological survey maps (2° series) with a 15 minute by 15 minute grid superimposed were used to define the sampling frame of clusters. Towns of 1,000 population or more were arrayed by population size. Clusters were allocated to the town "strata" vs. the county[1] "strata" in proportion to population size. On the list of towns, the clusters were assigned in proportion to population size. Town clusters will be located on detailed maps to be procured from the National Geological Survey series (7½ or 15 minute map) and the Bureau of the Census (county and enumeration district maps).

Clusters in the remainder of the county were assigned starting points by random sampling of intersections of the 15 minute grids. Grid lines were numbered 1 to 9 from the bottom to the top and left to right. Two-digit numbers were read from a list of random numbers, the first digit denoting a vertical axis and the second a horizontal axis. The first such defined "grid intersection" is used to specify the entry point into the northwest quadrant, i.e.,

North to the first road and left. The "grid intersection" sampled second provides the starting point for entry into the northeast quadrant by moving due east to the first road and turning left. Similarly, the third quadrant sampled, the southeast quadrant of the third "grid intersection" is entered by moving due South to the first road and to the left, the fourth quadrant (southwest) by moving West and left, etc. until starting points for all clusters are identified. No intersection was sampled more than once. All of these starting points have been located on the thirty county maps and the appropriate starting direction has been noted. As defined below, the survey supervisors will do the "ground truth" work on the clusters in their respective states.

Sampling Households:

The first eight households found, according to the following procedures, will constitute a sample cluster. After entering each sample quadrant on the first road to the left of the starting point, proceed in a serpentine fashion. That is, at the first intersection, take the first right turn; at the next intersection take a left turn, etc. The first eight households identified (exclude vacant houses) on this serpentine route will be included in the sample. The survey supervisor will photograph (preferably with Poloroid) each sample house, number the photos 1 through 8, and draw their location on the map. Each photo should have sufficient description on the back to aid the interviewer in finding the house. Names and telephone numbers of householders would help.

Cluster Boundaries:

Dead end roads, loops, county lines, and boundaries of towns and clusters already included in the sample will be treated as "dead ends." All of these "dead ends" are cluster boundaries. If the serpentine route runs into a cluster boundary or "dead end," return to the last intersection. If the last turn before the "dead end" was to the left, turn left again from the "dead end" road, or, if the last turn was right, turn right again. It is possible that all roads from an intersection but one are "dead ends." If still more households are needed to complete the cluster after all roads have been explored to their end, return to the second previous intersection and turn right or left as previously defined for that intersection.

Cluster Maps and Identification:

Clusters will be marked on county census or city maps by survey supervisors in each state. The sample households must be identified, photographed and marked on the map. The interviewers will be supplied maps, photographs, and directions prepared by survey supervisors to find the sample households. Clusters will be numbered sequentially within counties. State, county, cluster, and household identification numbers will be prerecorded on maps, photographs, and questionnaires.

Respondent Refusal:

In the event one or more of the eight households refuse to respond as defined by procedures in the questionnaire, the ninth household along the serpentine route would be interviewed, etc. until the cluster of eight interviews are obtained. Before substitutions are made for any of the original eight households, clearance should be given by the survey supervisor. Substitute households interviewed should be identified by their sequential identification number along the prescribed serpentine route.

RR-1 Sampling Subcommittee

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Table A1. Sample Frame of Rural, Low-Income, Mixed-Race Counties and Sample Counties* by State Selected in Proportion to Population Size with Random Start

FIPS	COUNTY	% BLACK	POP 1976	CUM POP	RS+(SI)
ALABAMA					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
01041	CREN	28.7	14.1	14.1	
01129	WASH*	29.9	16.9	31.0	22.1
01107	PICKE	41.7	21.1	52.1	
01035	CONEC	44.7	15.6	67.7	+(58.1)
01099	MONRO*	45.5	21.8	89.5	80.2
01105	PERRY	58.7	13.4	102.9	
01119	SUMTE	66.2	17.7	120.6	+(58.1)
01065	HALE	66.4	15.5	136.1	
01131	WILCO*	68.5	15.0	151.1	138.3
01063	GREENE	75.4	10.7	161.8	
01085	LOWND	76.9	13.4	175.2	
ARKANSAS					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
05025	CLEVE*	19.7	6.6	6.6	4.5
05013	CALHO*	32.2	5.4	12.0	11.7
05073	LAFAY*	43.3	9.6	21.6	18.9
FLORIDA					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
12077	LIBERT	14.3	4.1	4.1	
12133	WASH*	20.2	13.0	17.1	13.7
					+(30.1)
12125	UNION	28.4	10.5	27.6	
12063	JACKS*	28.9	37.8	65.4	43.7
					+(30.1)
12079	MADIS*	43.8	15.0	80.4	73.7
12065	JEFFER	55.8	9.8	90.2	
GEORGIA					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
13309	WHEEL	29.5	4.9	4.9	
13101	ECHOL	30.8	2.1	7.0	
13267	TATTN	30.9	17.1	24.1	
13003	ATKIN	32.0	5.9	30.0	
13167	JOHNS*	32.1	7.8	37.8	36.8
13271	TELFA	34.5	11.3	49.1	+(63.0)
13221	OGLET	37.2	8.1	57.2	
13249	SCHLE	44.8	3.0	60.2	
13269	TAYLO	44.8	8.1	68.3	
13251	SCREV	46.7	13.0	81.3	
13093	DOOLY	50.1	10.9	92.2	
13133	GREEN*	51.8	10.5	102.7	98.8
13197	MARIO	52.4	6.2	108.9	+(63.0)
13007	BAKER	53.0	3.6	112.5	
13079	CRAWF	53.2	6.6	119.1	
13163	JEFFE	54.5	16.5	135.6	
13289	TWIGG	56.3	7.9	143.5	
13307	WEBST	60.4	2.3	145.8	
13239	QUITM	61.1	2.0	147.8	
13061	CLAY	61.7	3.5	151.3	
13265	TALIA	62.4	2.2	153.5	
13037	CALHO	63.1	6.7	160.2	
13259	STEWA*	64.4	5.6	165.8	162.8
13263	TALBO	67.8	6.4	172.2	
13141	HANCOC	73.8	9.3	181.5	
KENTUCKY					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
21147	MCCRE*	1.5	14.7	14.7	
21121	KNOX	1.6	27.4	42.1	12.4
					+(30.0)
21051	CLAY*	1.8	21.2	63.3	42.4
21231	WAYNE	3.0	6.5	69.8	+(30.0)
21171	MONRO*	3.4	11.9	81.7	72.4
21011	BATH	4.3	9.1	90.8	
21053	CLINTO	4.8	8.7	106.4	
21057	CUMBE	6.4	6.9	99.5	
MISSISSIPPI					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
28041	GREEN	22.0	8.6	8.6	
28079	LEAKE*	35.7	18.0	26.6	19.0
28061	JASPE	46.4	16.4	43.0	+(77.0)
28005	AMITE	50.4	13.0	56.0	
28107	PANOL	51.3	27.5	83.5	
28069	KEMPE	54.8	10.1	93.6	
28119	QUITM*	57.4	14.0	107.6	96.0
28135	TALLA	60.2	18.0	125.6	+(77.0)
28093	MARSH	62.0	26.9	152.5	
28051	HOLME	64.8	14.2	166.7	
28103	NOXUB*	65.8	13.1	179.8	173
28157	WILKI	67.6	10.1	189.9	
28053	HUMPH	68.1	22.0	211.9	
28143	TUNIC	72.7	10.8	222.7	
28063	JEFFE	75.3	8.8	231.5	
NORTH CAROLINA					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
37017	BLADE	39.0	28.8	28.8	
37095	HYDE	41.3	5.6	34.4	
37177	TYRRE	43.4	3.8	38.2	
37093	HOKE*	44.2	18.3	56.5	45.3
					+(50.0)
37103	JONES	45.1	9.6	66.1	
37007	ANSON	46.4	23.8	89.9	
37015	BERTI*	56.6	21.0	110.9	95.3
					+(50.0)
37131	NORTH	59.0	22.9	133.8	
37185	WARRE*	59.9	16.2	150.0	145.3
SOUTH CAROLINA					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
45053	JASPER	57.1	13.8	13.8	
45039	FAIRF*	59.4	20.2	34.0	33.0
					+(40.8)
45061	LEE	59.8	17.7	51.7	
45065	MCCOR	60.3	8.1	59.8	
45089	WILLI*	60.9	35.3	95.1	73.8
					+(40.8)
45027	CLARE*	62.0	27.4	122.5	114.6
TENNESSEE					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
47029	COCKE*	2.8	27.6	27.6	12.9
					+(27.3)
47007	BLEDS	5.5	8.8	36.4	
47097	LAUDE*	33.7	22.6	59.0	40.2
					+(27.3)
47047	FAYET*	61.2	23.7	82.7	67.5
VIRGINIA					
			(000)	(000)	(000)
51079	GREEN	10.7	6.7	6.7	
51113	MADISO	20.4	10.0	16.7	
51125	NELSON	28.6	11.7	28.4	
51145	POWHA	36.4	10.6	39.0	
51159	RICHMO	36.6	6.6	45.6	
51109	LOUIS*	38.6	16.9	62.5	56.4
51083	HALIFA	38.8	37.6	100.1	+(72.9)
51037	CHARLE	39.8	12.7	112.8	
51117	MECKL*	42.2	29.5	142.3	129.3
51111	LUNEN	43.2	12.3	154.6	+(72.9)
51029	BUCKI	44.2	10.9	165.5	
51007	AMELI	47.2	8.5	174.0	
51049	CUMB	47.9	7.0	181.0	
51131	NORTH	52.3	15.4	196.4	
51025	BRUNS*	58.4	15.8	212.2	202.2
51039	CHARLO	74.2	6.5	218.7	

RS = Random Start
SI = Sample Interval

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